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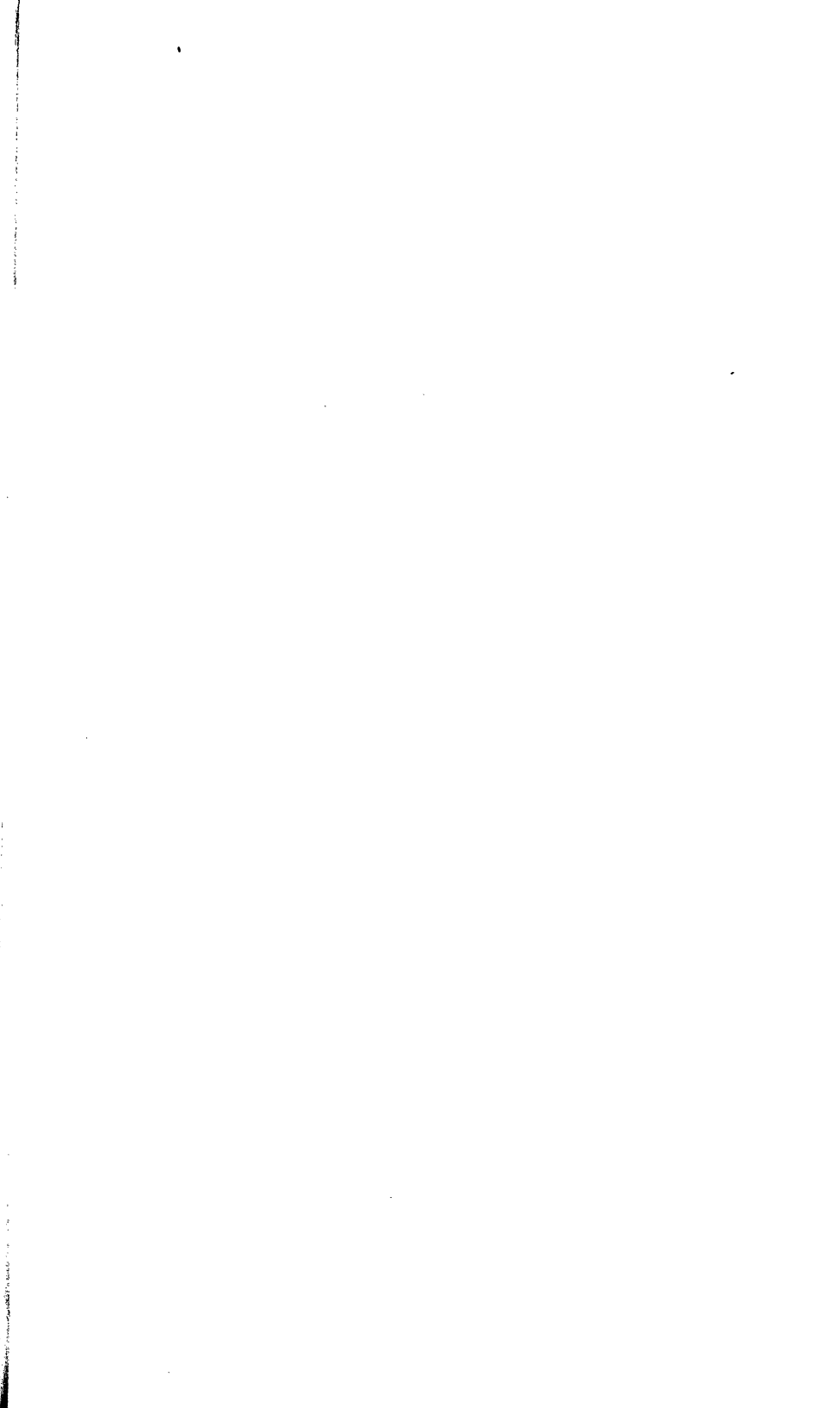
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AMERICAN ORIENTAL SERIES

VOLUME 1

A GRAMMAR OF THE TAGÁLOG
LANGUAGE

AMERICAN ORIENTAL SERIES

VOLUME 1

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A GRAMMAR
OF THE
TAGÁLOG LANGUAGE

THE CHIEF NATIVE IDIOM
OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS

BY

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PREFACE.

The present grammar is the result of an extended study of Tagálog and the related languages carried on in connection with the author's work as instructor in Semitic and Philippine languages at Johns Hopkins University. It is based on the works of the best Spanish grammarians, checked and verified by the reading of numerous Tagálog texts.

This work was begun shortly after the Spanish-American War. A few years later, in 1902, the results were presented before the American Oriental Society, but the Society could not at that time see its way clear to print the Grammar in its Journal. In the years that followed, with a view to secure the publication of the work, various agencies were approached without success, several publishing firms, the War Department, the Smithsonian Institution, and the Carnegie Institution. In the meantime the Grammar was practically rewritten, and brought to what was substantially its present form about 1910. Thru the kind offices of Prof. J. J. M. De Groot of Leyden, who lectured that year at Johns Hopkins University, the Grammar was then brought to the notice of the *Koninklijk Instituut voor de Taal- Land- en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch Indië* of Holland. A committee of Malayo-Polynesian specialists headed by the late Prof. J. C. G. Jonker of Leyden pronounced it the best Tagálog grammar yet written, and strongly recommended its publication, but the members of the Instituut felt that the cost of such a work, dealing with a language of a dependency of the United States, should be borne by some agency of that government,

and refused to undertake it. On the basis of the favorable report of the committee just mentioned, the Grammar was then again referred to the War Department of the United States, and also to the Smithsonian Institution, but they declined to reconsider their former decision. About seven years ago, however, the American Oriental Society decided to publish the Grammar as the first of a series of special Oriental Publications, provided it could secure a subvention from some individual or institution for that purpose. This plan not proving feasible, the Society finally determined at its meeting in Baltimore in 1920 to use its own funds for the publication of the Grammar, and the appearance of this work at this time is the result of that decision. Thanks are especially due in this connection to Prof. Paul Haupt, Professor of Semitic Languages at Johns Hopkins University, for his repeated efforts, dating back to 1902, to secure the publication of the work.

A number of Tagalog grammars already exist, but none of them can be regarded as satisfactory. Most of these, moreover, are in Spanish, and therefore inaccessible to the majority of Americans. Of grammars in English, the best, all things considered, is the recent work of L. Bloomfield, "Tagalog Texts with Grammatical Analysis" (Urbana, Ill., 1917); but this, tho containing much valuable material, is rendered unavailable for practical purposes by its defects of arrangement and peculiarities of phraseology.¹ The grammars of Lendoyro (Manila, 1902 and 1909), and Mackinlay (Washington, 1905), while they likewise present a large amount of useful material, suffer from the usual defects of the so-called practical grammar; the subject matter is poorly arranged, the explanations of the grammatical facts are often obscure, meager, and insufficient, a large number of important forms and constructions are not explained or

¹ Cf. my review of this work in the *American Journal of Philology*, xl, 1 (1919), pp. 86—93. It has seemed best not to include any of the new material given in this work in the present grammar. This material will be treated later in a separate article.

even mentioned, and many grammatical principles are illustrated in the examples, either previous to the explanations, or without any explanation whatever.

Tagalog is a language of peculiar difficulty, and one which is not readily acquired by so-called practical methods. An extended course in the grammatical structure and theory of the language is necessary before much progress can be made. This necessity of preliminary grammatical study is indicated by the familiar Spanish saying that to learn Tagalog requires *un año de arte y dos de bahaque* 'one year of grammar and two of practice'. What is needed by the student is a method that will enable him to understand and assimilate readily the material which he meets in reading or conversation, a clear and concise presentation of all the facts of the language in an arrangement in which scientific principles are observed, but which offers at the same time some of the advantages of a practical treatment.

The present Grammar is an attempt to supply this need. It is divided into four parts, viz.:

Orthography and Phonology,
Morphology,
Syntax of Combinations,
Special Syntax.

In the first the signs used in writing, and the sounds of the language are discussed; in the second, the form and classification of words; in the third, all the various possible combinations of words to form phrases, and of words and phrases to form sentences; in the fourth, the use of the various parts of speech, and of various words, forms and principles, from the standpoint of the individual part of speech, word, etc., and not from the standpoint of the combination in which they occur. Parts one and two furnish the material of the structure of the language, part three gives the rules for the building of the structure, part four describes how the material is used in building. For the sake of convenience some few syntactical facts

are treated in the second part, and some few points of special syntax in the third part. It has also seemed best to discuss the derivative nouns and adjectives separately in an appendix to the second part. Everything is made as clear as possible, and all principles are explained before they are used in the examples, or a reference is inserted to the proper paragraph.

The logical subdivision of the material is indicated by the headings of the various sections; the division into paragraphs is not logical, and is simply for convenience of reference. Some few of the most usual grammatical terms are taken for granted, but in most cases the term is explained where it is first used.

The author has in preparation as a supplement to the grammar, a fifth part which is designed to give the common words, phrases, and idioms of the spoken language.

The present grammar, it is hoped, will serve not only as a means for the acquisition of Tagalog, but also as an introduction to the study of the Philippine languages in general, and as a model for other Philippine grammars, for as the Spanish saying with reference to these languages runs, *cuando se sabe uno casi se saben todos* 'when you know one you almost know all.'

Finally the work is to be regarded not only as a grammar of Tagalog, but also as an exposition of a new method of syntactical treatment.

Thanks are due Prof. Aaron Ember of Johns Hopkins University for making while in Germany the final arrangements for the publication of the book, and also to the firm of Drugulin for its satisfactory and efficient handling of a difficult piece of work under unfavorable conditions.

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¹ All works of any importance are here listed. The number of pages is given whenever possible, but statements of size are omitted, these being often misleading and ambiguous as given in the various Philippine Bibliographies. JHUC = Johns Hopkins University Circulars; JAOS = Journal of the American Oriental Society; AJP = American Journal of Philology; BNI = Bijdragen tot de Taal- Land- en Volkenkunde van Nederlandsch Indië. For a more complete list cf. my article *A Bibliography of the Philippine Languages, Part I*, JAOS, xl, 1920, pp. 25—70. All the titles in the list here given are from the above Bibliography except those followed by (S), which are from an unpublished supplementary list of titles furnished by Prof. Otto Scheerer of the University of the Philippines, Manila.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS.

INTRODUCTION	Page 1
------------------------	-----------

PART FIRST. ALPHABET, ORTHOGRAPHY, AND PHONOLOGY.

I. ALPHABET AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

§ 1. Ancient alphabet	3
§ 2. Spanish orthography and improvements in spelling	3
§ 3. Alphabet and diacritical marks used in this grammar	4

II. PHONOLOGY.

VOWELS.

§ 4. Sounds of the vowels	5
§ 5. Final guttural vowels	5
§ 6. Vowel changes	6
§ 7. Diphthongs	6

CONSONANTS.

§ 8. Sounds of the consonants	6
§ 9. Consonant changes	7

§ 10. <i>ELISION, SYNCOPE AND SPORADIC CHANGES</i>	8
--	---

§ 11. <i>THE SYLLABLE</i>	8
-------------------------------------	---

ACCENT.

§ 12. Accent in general	9
§ 13. Words with ultimate accent	10
§ 14. Words with penultimate accent	10
§ 15. Accent as an indication of meaning	10
§ 16. Secondary accent	11
§ 17. Shift of accent	11

PART SECOND. MORPHOLOGY.

Page

I. FORM OF WORDS IN GENERAL.

§ 18.	<i>ROOTS, PARTICLES, DERIVATIVES, PARTS OF SPEECH, INFLECTION</i>	12
§ 19.	<i>FORMS OF REDUPLICATION</i>	13

II. THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

THE LIGATURE.

§ 20.	The ligature in general	15
§ 21.	The ligature "	15
§ 22.	Shift of the ligature	15

§ 23.	<i>THE ARTICLES</i>	16
-------	-------------------------------	----

§ 24.	<i>PRONOUNS</i>	16
-------	---------------------------	----

§ 25.	PERSONAL PRONOUNS	17
-------	-----------------------------	----

§ 26.	DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS	18
-------	----------------------------------	----

§ 27.	RELATIVE PRONOUNS	19
-------	-----------------------------	----

§ 28.	INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS	19
-------	----------------------------------	----

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 29.	Indefinite pronouns from interrogatives	20
-------	---	----

§ 30.	Other indefinite pronouns	20
-------	-------------------------------------	----

§ 31.	Expression of various indefinite pronominal ideas	21
-------	---	----

§ 32.	Intensive and plural forms of certain indefinites	22
-------	---	----

THE NUMERALS.

CARDINALS.

§ 33.	Forms of the cardinals	22
-------	----------------------------------	----

§ 34.	Remarks on the cardinals	24
-------	------------------------------------	----

§ 35.	ORDINALS	24
-------	--------------------	----

§ 36.	FRACTIONS	25
-------	---------------------	----

DISTRIBUTIVES.

§ 37.	Cardinal distributives	26
-------	----------------------------------	----

§ 38.	Ordinal distributives	26
-------	---------------------------------	----

§ 39.	Distributives with prefixed <i>tig</i> or <i>man</i>	26
-------	--	----

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

§ 40.	Numeral adverbs denoting 'how many times?'	27
-------	--	----

§ 41.	Numerals denoting days in the past	28
-------	--	----

	Page
§ 42. RESTRICTIVE NUMERALS	29

ANCIENT SYSTEM OF NUMERATION.

§ 43. Cardinals	29
§ 44. Other numerals	31

NOUNS.

§ 45. Forms of nouns	32
§ 46. Indication of case and number of common nouns	32
§ 47. Names of persons	33
§ 48. Other proper nouns	34
§ 49. Vocative	34
§ 50. Gender	34
§ 51. Nouns consisting of reduplicated roots	34

DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

§ 52. Forms of descriptive adjectives	35
§ 53. Plural and intensive forms	35
§ 54. Comparative degree	36
§ 55. Relative superlative	36
§ 56. Absolute superlative	36
§ 57. Adjectives of equality	37

§ 58. <i>QUASI VERBS</i>	37
------------------------------------	----

VERBS.

§ 59. VERBAL PARTICLES IN GENERAL	38
---	----

VERBS MADE WITH PRINCIPAL PARTICLES.

The Verbal Forms in General.

§ 60. Active particles	38
§ 61. Special passive particles	39
§ 62. Essential passive particles	40
§ 63. Tense and mode forms	40

Groups of Verbs.

Group I.

§ 64. Active	41
§ 65. Passive	42

Group II.

§ 66. In general	43
§ 67. Remarks on sub-classes	44

Group III.

§ 68. <i>Man</i> class	45
§ 69. <i>Manhi</i> class	46

	Page
Group IV.	
§ 70. Active	47
§ 71. Passive with special particle <i>ka</i>	47
§ 72. Passive with special particle <i>ma</i>	47

Group V.	
§ 73. Active	48
§ 74. Passive	49

Secondary and Tertiary Derivation.

§ 75. Varieties of secondary verbs	50
§ 76. Tense and mode forms	51
§ 77. Tertiary verbs	52

§ 78. Verbs with fully Reduplicated Roots	53
---	----

Irregularities and Peculiarities.

In General.

§ 79. Root and passive stem imperatives	53
§ 80. Impersonal passive imperative	53
§ 81. Irregular passives	54
§ 82. Use of <i>ika</i> for <i>i</i> in the <i>i</i> -passive	55
§ 83. Emphatic or frequentative forms	55

Um Class.

§ 84. <i>Im</i> for <i>um</i>	56
§ 85. Present with prefix <i>na</i>	56
§ 86. Roots with initial consonant which have the formation of roots with initial vowel in the <i>i</i> -passive	56
§ 87. <i>Ni</i> for <i>in</i>	56
§ 88. Dissyllabic roots with initial <i>b</i> or <i>p</i>	56
§ 89. Polysyllabic roots with initial <i>p</i>	57

Other Classes.

§ 90. Infix <i>in</i> with verbs made with <i>mag—an</i>	58
§ 91. Verbs of <i>maki</i> class which modify initial of root	58
§ 92. Root forms of <i>ma</i> class	58
§ 93. The quasi-verb <i>na</i> + case treated as a verb of the <i>ma</i> class	58
§ 94. Irregular forms of <i>maḍlam</i> 'know'	59
§ 95. Passive stem of <i>pa</i> class as a noun	59
§ 96. Passive stem of <i>pa</i> class as an adverb	59

VERBS MADE WITH SUBSIDIARY PARTICLES.

§ 97. Subsidiary Particles in General	59
---	----

Primary Subsidiary Particles.

§ 98. <i>Ka</i>	59
---------------------------	----

	Page
§ 99. <i>Kapag, kapagka, pagka, pag</i>	60
§ 100. <i>Ku—an</i>	61
§ 101. <i>Paka</i>	61
§ 102. <i>Pá</i>	61

Secondary Subsidiary Particles.

§ 103. <i>Nga</i>	62
§ 104. <i>An</i>	62
§ 105. <i>Ga</i>	63

ADVERBS.

§ 106. CLASSES OF ADVERBS	63
-------------------------------------	----

Adverbs of Manner.

§ 107. Descriptive adjectives as adverbs of manner	63
§ 108. Adjectives of equality as adverbs of manner	63
§ 109. Oblique case of nouns and roots as adverbs of manner	64
§ 110. Adverbs of manner denoting gradual development	64
§ 111. Adverbs of manner with the prefixes <i>ga, kasing</i>	64
§ 112. Adverbs of manner with the prefix <i>pa</i>	64
§ 113. Interrogative adverbs of manner made indefinite by <i>man</i>	64

§ 114. Adverbs of Time	64
---	----

Definite.

§ 115. Adverbs denoting present and future days	65
§ 116. Adverbs denoting past days	65
§ 117. Adverbs denoting other divisions of time in past and future	65
§ 118. Genitive, oblique, and nominative of nouns of time as adverbs	66
§ 119. Adverbs denoting a recurrent period of time	66
§ 120. Adverbs of time containing the idea 'every'	66

Indefinite.

§ 121.1. Adverbs of time from demonstratives	66
§ 121.2. Other adverbs of time	66

§ 122. Adverbs of Place	68
--	----

Adverbs of Degree.

§ 123. Adverbs of degree with prefix <i>ga</i>	69
§ 124. Other adverbs of degree	69

§ 125. Affirmative or Emphatic Adverbs	70
---	----

§ 126. Negative Adverbs	71
--	----

§ 127. Interrogative Adverbs	71
---	----

§ 128. Modal Adverbs	72
---------------------------------------	----

	Page
§ 129. Consecutive Adverbs	73
FORM OF ADVERBS.	
§ 130. Classes of adverbs with respect to form	74
§ 131. Intensive reduplication of adverbs	75
§ 132. Comparative and Superlative of adverbs	75
§ 133. Case forms of adverbs	75
§ 134. PREPOSITIONS	76
CONJUNCTIONS	
§ 135. In general	77
§ 136. Coordinate conjunctions	77
§ 137. Subordinate conjunctions	78
§ 138. Remarks on the form of various conjunctions	80
§ 139. INTERJECTIONS	80
§ 140. III. APPENDIX. DERIVATIVE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES	82
VERBAL NOUNS.	
§ 141. Participles	82
§ 142. Nouns from future and present active	82
§ 143. Nouns from passive future and modal of <i>maka</i> potential	83
§ 144. Verbal nouns of action	83
THE SUFFIXES AN AND IN.	
§ 145. THE SUFFIX AN	84
§ 146. THE SUFFIX IN	86
THE INFIX-PREFIX IN.	
§ 147. <i>In</i> alone	87
§ 148. <i>In-an</i>	87
PREFIXES.	
KA.	
§ 149. <i>Ka</i> alone	88
§ 150. <i>Ka-an</i>	89
§ 151. MA, MAPAG	91
§ 152. MAG	92
§ 153. MAN	93
§ 154. MAY	93
§ 155. PAG	93
§ 156. PAGKA	93
§ 157. PALA	94
§ 158. PAN	94

		Page
§ 159.	SANG	95
§ 160.	SING, KASING	95
§ 161.	TAG	96
§ 162.	TAGA	96

PART THIRD. SYNTAX OF COMBINATIONS.

§ 163.	I. COMBINATION OF WORDS TO FORM PHRASES . .	97
--------	---	----

COMBINATIONS OF THE NOUN.

§ 164.	WITH THE ARTICLES AND PLURAL PARTICLE . . .	98
§ 165.	WITH THE DEMONSTRATIVES	99
§ 166.	WITH THE INTERROGATIVES	100
§ 167.	WITH THE INDEFINITES	101
§ 168.	WITH THE CARDINALS	102
§ 169.	WITH THE ORDINALS	102
§ 170.	WITH FRACTIONS	102
§ 171.	WITH DISTRIBUTIVES	103
§ 172.	WITH POSSESSIVES	103
§ 173.	WITH DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES	103
§ 174.	WITH INDEFINITE DEPENDENT NOMINATIVE . . .	104
§ 175.	WITH AN APPOSITIVE	105
§ 176.	WITH THE GENITIVE	106
§ 177.	WITH THE OBLIQUE AND EQUIVALENT PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES AND ADVERBS	106
§ 178.	WITH OTHER ADVERBS	107
§ 179.	WITH AN INFINITIVE	108
§ 180.	WITH CLAUSES	108
§ 181.	WITH COMBINATIONS OF MODIFIERS	108
§ 182.	COORDINATED NOUNS	109

COMBINATIONS OF THE PRONOUN (INCLUDING NUMERALS).

§ 183.	WITH THE OBLIQUE	111
§ 184.	WITH THE GENITIVE	112
§ 185.	WITH INDEFINITE DEPENDENT NOMINATIVE . . .	112
§ 186.	WITH AN APPOSITIVE	113
§ 187.	WITH ADVERBS EXPRESSING DEGREE	113
§ 188.	WITH THE ARTICLE	114
§ 189.	WITH OTHER NOMINAL MODIFIERS	114
§ 190.	POSTPOSITIVE PRONOUNS	115
§ 191.	COORDINATED PRONOUNS	115

COMBINATIONS OF THE ADJECTIVE.

ADJECTIVES IN THE POSITIVE DEGREE.

With Dependent Case or Prepositional Phrase.

§ 192.	With dependent nominative	116
§ 193.	With the oblique	116
§ 194.	With a prepositional phrase	116
§ 195.	With Adverbs	116
§ 196.	With Dependent Infinitive	117
§ 197.	With Indefinite Pronouns of Similarity	117

ADJECTIVES EXPRESSING COMPARISON.

§ 198.	Comparative and Superlative	118
--------	---------------------------------------	-----

Adjectives of Equality.

§ 199.	With dependent case	118
§ 200.	With adverbs of degree	118

§ 201.	ADJECTIVES WITH NOMINAL MODIFIERS	119
--------	---	-----

COMBINATIONS OF THE ADVERB.

§ 202.	WITH OTHER ADVERBS	119
§ 203.	WITH FOLLOWING CASE	120
§ 204.	WITH THE ARTICLE	121
	POSTPOSITIVE ADVERBS.	

§ 205.	In general	121
§ 206.	Affirmative adverbs	122
§ 207.	Modal adverbs	122
§ 208.	Interrogative adverbs	122
§ 209.	<i>Na-ng</i>	122

COMBINATIONS OF THE PREPOSITION.

§ 210.	THE PREPOSITION AND ITS OBJECT	123
§ 211.	THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE	125

COMBINATIONS OF THE CONJUNCTION.

§ 212.	WITH ADVERBS	125
§ 213.	WITH OTHER CONJUNCTIONS	126
§ 214.	POSTPOSITIVE MAN	126
§ 215.	PHRASES MADE WITH COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS	126

II. COMBINATION OF WORDS AND PHRASES TO FORM SIMPLE SENTENCES.

§ 216. *THE SIMPLE SENTENCE IN GENERAL* . . . 127

SENTENCES WITH NON-VERBAL PREDICATE.

SIMPLE COPULATIVE SENTENCES.

§ 217. With predicate noun, adjective, or pronoun	128
§ 218. With predicate denoting material or quality	128
§ 219. With oblique case as predicate	129
§ 220. With prepositional phrase or adverb as predicate	129
§ 221. Insertion of a word between two parts of the predicate	129
§ 222. With interrogative pronoun in the predicate	129
§ 223. Negative of simple copulative sentences	130

THE PARTICLES *NA* AND *WALĀ*.

§ 224. In general, indicating 'to be (in a place),' and 'to have (something definite)'	130
§ 225. With the article	131
§ 226. <i>Na</i> with <i>saān</i>	132
§ 227. Verbal forms from <i>na</i> + object	132
§ 228. Special peculiarities	132

THE PARTICLES *MAY* and *WALĀ*.

§ 229. Denoting 'to have (something indefinite)'	133
§ 230. Denoting indefinite 'there is'	134
§ 231. With interrogative pronoun as logical subject or object	134
§ 232. With the article	135
§ 233. Special peculiarities	135

§ 234. THE PARTICLE *A* 'SAY' 136

SENTENCES WITH NON-VERBAL PREDICATE IN GENERAL.

§ 235. Negative and interrogative sentences	136
§ 236. Adverbs of time and expression of tense	137
§ 237. Other adverbs with construction of adverbs of time	138
§ 238. Predicate modified by affirmative adverbs	138
§ 239. Adverbs as predicate	138
§ 240. Adverbs joined to predicate by the ligature	139
§ 241. Omission of subject and object	139

SENTENCES WITH VERBAL PREDICATE. *COMBINATIONS OF THE VERB.*

§ 242. THE VERB AND ITS SUBJECT 140

	Page
THE ACTIVE VERB AND ITS OBJECTS.	
§ 243. In genitive and oblique	140
§ 244. In indefinite nominative	141
THE PASSIVE VERB, ITS AGENT AND OBJECTS.	
§ 245. In general	141
§ 246. Indefinite nominative for genitive	143
§ 247. CONSTRUCTION OF VERBS MADE WITH PRIMARY SUBSIDIARY PARTICLES	143
§ 248. CONSTRUCTION OF THE VERBAL NOUN	144
CONSTRUCTION OF THE IMPERATIVE.	
§ 249. Modal as imperative	145
§ 250. Other imperative forms	145
§ 251. THE ARTICLE WITH VERBAL FORMS	146
NEGATIVE VERBAL SENTENCES.	
§ 252. In general	147
§ 253. Negative of the imperative	148
INTERROGATIVE VERBAL SENTENCES.	
§ 254. Simple interrogative sentences	148
§ 255. Sentences introduced by an interrogative pronoun	148
§ 256. VERBS WITH BOTH DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECTS	149
THE VERB WITH ADVERBS AND ADVERBIAL EXPRESSIONS.	
§ 257. With the adverb in general	150
§ 258. With adverbs joined by the ligature	150
§ 259. With adverbs in the genitive	150
§ 260. With adverbs joined by <i>ay</i>	151
§ 261. With adverbs used without connective particle	151
§ 262. With adverbs which take the same construction as <i>hindī</i>	151
§ 263. With adverbs in non-verbal predicate	152
§ 264. With postpositive adverbs	152
§ 265. With appositive nouns and pronouns in adverbial construction with the ligature	152
§ 266. With prepositional phrases	153
§ 267. With an oblique case at the beginning of a sentence	153
VERBS WITH DEPENDENT VERBS.	
§ 268. With verbs used as adverbs	153
§ 269. With following dependent verb in general	154
§ 270. Modal auxiliaries	154

QUASI-VERBS WITH DEPENDENT VERBS.

§ 271. <i>May</i> and <i>walâ</i>	155
§ 272. <i>Na</i>	157

III. DIFFERENT KINDS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

§ 273. <i>SENTENCES CONTAINING A NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE</i>	157
--	-----

§ 274. <i>SENTENCES CONTAINING AN INDEFINITE ELEMENT</i>	157
--	-----

SENTENCES CONTAINING A COMPARISON.

§ 275.	SIMILARITY	158
COMPARATIVE.		

§ 276.	In General	159
----------------	----------------------	-----

Qualitative Comparison.

§ 277. Comparison of equality	160
§ 278. Comparison of superiority	160
§ 279. Comparison of inferiority	161

Quantitative Comparison.

§ 280. Comparison of equality	161
§ 281. Comparison of superiority	162
§ 282. Comparison of inferiority	162

§ 283.	Comparison of Adverbial Ideas	162
----------------	---	-----

§ 284.	Comparison of Verbal Ideas	163
----------------	--------------------------------------	-----

§ 285.	Other Comparisons	163
----------------	-----------------------------	-----

SUPERLATIVE.

§ 286. Of adjectives	163
§ 287. Of adverbs	164
§ 288. Certain absolute superlative expressions	164

§ 289.	COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE VERBS	165
----------------	---	-----

NEGATIVE SENTENCES.

§ 290. In general	165
§ 291. Negative words	165

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

§ 292. In general	167
§ 293. Special peculiarities	167

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES.

§ 294. Combinations of various interjections	169
§ 295. Use of noun and dependent genitive	170
§ 296. Other exclamatory constructions	171
§ 297. Oaths and maledictions	171

§ 298. <i>DESIDERATIVE SENTENCES</i>	172
--	-----

IV. COMBINATIONS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

§ 299. <i>IN GENERAL</i>	173
------------------------------------	-----

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

§ 300. <i>IN GENERAL</i>	173
------------------------------------	-----

MADE WITH COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 301. In general	173
§ 302. Sentences containing a compound element	174
§ 303. <i>At</i> introducing sentences equivalent to a subordinate clause	174
§ 304. Double questions	174

MADE WITH *AY*.

§ 305. In general	175
§ 306. Sentences containing verbal forms made with subsidiary particle <i>ka</i> prefixed to partially reduplicated roots	175
§ 307. Sentences containing verbal forms made with this <i>ka</i> prefixed to fully reduplicated roots	176
§ 308. Sentences containing verbal forms made with the subsidiary particles <i>kapag</i> , <i>kapagka</i> , <i>pagka</i> , <i>pag</i>	176

§ 309. <i>JUXTAPOSED SENTENCES</i>	177
--	-----

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

§ 310. <i>IN GENERAL</i>	178
------------------------------------	-----

SIMPLE RELATIVE CLAUSES.

§ 311. 1. In general	178
§ 311. 2. With non-verbal predicate	179
§ 312. With verbal predicate	179
§ 313. With emphatic subject	180
§ 314. Expression of genitive and oblique of the relative pronoun	180

COMPOUND RELATIVE CLAUSES.

Page

§ 315.	In general	181
§ 316.	Subject clauses with conjunctive <i>ang</i>	182
§ 317.	<i>Ang</i> with force of subordinate conjunction	182
§ 318.	Clauses introduced by the article after a preposition	183

NOUN CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY THE LIGATURE.

§ 319.	In general	183
§ 320.	After verbs	184
§ 321.	After impersonal predicates	184
§ 322.	As object of quasi-verbs <i>may</i> and <i>walâ</i>	184

§ 323.	CLAUSES OF DIRECT QUOTATION	185
§ 324.	CLAUSES OF RESULT	185
§ 325.	PURPOSE CLAUSES	186
§ 326.	COMPARATIVE CLAUSES	187
§ 327.	TEMPORAL CLAUSES	188

CAUSAL CLAUSES.

§ 328.	In general	189
§ 329.	Sentences containing verbal forms made with subsidiary <i>ka—an</i> (c)	190

CONCESSIVE CLAUSES.

§ 330.	In general	190
§ 331.	Concessive interrogative clauses	191

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES.

§ 332.	In general	191
§ 333.	With <i>pa</i> expressing an elliptical comparison in the principal clause	192

§ 334.	DEPENDENT INTERROGATIVE CLAUSES	193
--------	---	-----

CONJUNCTIONS WITH ADVERBIAL
CONSTRUCTION.

§ 335.	In general	194
§ 336.	After the ligature and forms of the article	194

V. INVOLVED SENTENCES.

§ 337.	IN GENERAL	195
§ 338.	PARENTHETICAL EXPRESSIONS	196

VI. WORD ORDER.

§ 339.	In general	197
§ 340.	Postpositive words	199

PART FOURTH. SPECIAL SYNTAX.

Page

§ 341. 1.	I. IN GENERAL	201
§ 341. 2.	II. REDUPLICATION	201
§ 342.	III. REPETITION	204
§ 343.	IV. ELLIPSIS	204

V. THE ARTICLES.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.

§ 344.	In general	205
§ 345.	Use of <i>ang</i>	206
§ 346.	Use of <i>nang</i>	206
§ 347.	Use of <i>sa</i>	207

§ 348.	<i>THE PERSONAL AND INCLUSIVE ARTICLES.</i>	207
--------	---	-----

§ 349.	<i>THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE</i>	209
--------	---	-----

VI. PRONOUNS.

§ 350.	<i>PERSONAL PRONOUNS</i>	209
--------	------------------------------------	-----

§ 351.	<i>DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS</i>	211
--------	---	-----

§ 352.	<i>RELATIVE PRONOUNS</i>	212
--------	------------------------------------	-----

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 353.	In general	213
§ 354.	Special uses of interrogatives	214

§ 355.	<i>INDEFINITE PRONOUNS</i>	215
--------	--------------------------------------	-----

VII. NUMERALS.

§ 356.	<i>CARDINALS AND FRACTIONS</i>	219
--------	--	-----

§ 357.	<i>ORDINALS</i>	220
--------	---------------------------	-----

§ 358.	<i>DISTRIBUTIVES</i>	220
--------	--------------------------------	-----

§ 359.	<i>RESTRICTIVE NUMERALS</i>	222
--------	---------------------------------------	-----

§ 360.	<i>NUMERAL ADVERBS</i>	223
--------	----------------------------------	-----

VIII. NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

§ 361.	In general	223
§ 362.	Uses of various derivative nouns and adjectives	224
§ 363.	Derivative particles with phrases and clauses	228

IX. USE OF THE CASES.

Page

§ 364.	In general	229
§ 365.	Use of the nominative	229
§ 366.	Use of the genitive	230
§ 367.	Use of the oblique	231
§ 368.	Interchangeability of the case forms	231

§ 369.	X. THE PLURAL AND USE OF MANGĀ'	232
--------	---	-----

§ 370.	XI. APPPOSITION	233
--------	---------------------------	-----

XII. ADVERBS.

§ 371.	IN GENERAL	234
--------	----------------------	-----

USES OF SPECIAL ADVERBS.

§ 372.	In general	235
§ 373.	1. Adverbs of time	236
§ 373.	2. Adverbs of degree	237
§ 374.	Affirmative adverbs	237
§ 375.	Negative adverbs	239
§ 376.	Interrogative adverbs	239
§ 377.	Modal adverbs	240
§ 378.	Consecutive adverbs	242

§ 379.	XIII. PREPOSITIONS	244
--------	------------------------------	-----

§ 380.	XIV. CONJUNCTIONS	245
--------	-----------------------------	-----

XV. VERBS AND QUASI-VERBS.

§ 381.1.	USE OF VERBS AND QUASI-VERBS IN GENERAL	246
----------	--	-----

§ 381.2.	USE OF THE ACTIVE AND PASSIVE	246
----------	---	-----

MEANING AND USE OF THE VARIOUS KINDS
OF VERBS.

VERBS WITH TENSE PARTICLES.

Um and mag Classes.

§ 382.	Um and mag classes in general; roots taking either particle	248
§ 383.	Other verbs of the um class	250
§ 384.	Other verbs of the mag class with mag alone	252
§ 385.	Verbs of the mag class with secondary subsidiary particle	253
§ 386.	Passives of um and mag; use of pag in passive of mag class	253

	Page
§ 387. Magsi Class	254
§ 388. Magsa Class	254
§ 389. Magka Class	255
§ 390. Maki Class	255
§ 391. Magin(g) Class	257
§ 392. Magkan Class	257
§ 393. Magkapa and Magpati Classes	257
§ 394. Man Class	258
§ 395. Manhi Class	258
§ 396. Ma Class	259
Maka Class.	
§ 397. Causative verbs	261
§ 398. Potential verbs	261
§ 399. Pa Class	264
§ 400. Magpa Class	265
§ 401. Magpaka Class	268
§ 402. SECONDARY VERBAL DERIVATION	269
§ 403. VERBS FROM FULLY REDUPLICATED ROOTS	270
§ 404. THE SUBSIDIARY VERBAL FORMS	272
VERBS FROM OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH.	
§ 405. In General	272
§ 406. From Nouns and Adjectives	273
§ 407. From Pronouns	275
§ 408. From Numerals	276
§ 409. From Adverbs and Phrases	279
§ 410. CLASSES OF VERBS WITH RESPECT TO MEANING	282
§ 411. USE OF ROOT FORMS	283
USE OF TENSE AND MODE FORMS.	
§ 412. Use of modal	284
§ 413. Use of future	285
§ 414. Use of preterite	285
§ 415. Use of present	285
§ 416. Participles	285
§ 417. USE OF THE VERBAL NOUN OF ACTION	286
§ 418. EXPRESSION OF VARIOUS TENSE AND MODAL IDEAS	287
GOVERNMENT OF VERBS.	
§ 419. Active intransitive verbs	289
§ 420. Active transitive verbs	289
§ 421. Passive verbs	291
§ 422. <i>Magsi</i> , <i>Maka</i> potential, and secondary and tertiary verbs	292

XVI. CONNECTIVE PARTICLES. Page

§ 423.	<i>THE LIGATURE</i>	292
§ 424.	<i>THE PARTICLE AY</i>	295

XVII. GENERAL RELATIONS OF THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES.

§ 425.	<i>IN GENERAL</i>	296
§ 426.	<i>INTERRELATIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH</i>	296
§ 427.	<i>INTERRELATION OF CONSTRUCTIONS</i> . .	297
§ 428.	<i>TYPES OF CONSTRUCTION</i>	298

APPENDICES

Roots with syncopated forms	300
Roots taking h before suffixes	307
Polysyllabic roots with initial P	310

INDEXES

Subjects	312
Symbolic Words	316
Derivative Particles	319

Addenda and Corrigenda	322
----------------------------------	-----

INTRODUCTION.

Tagalog is the principal language of Luzon, the largest island of the Philippine Archipelago. It is spoken in Manila and in the middle region of Luzon. Tagalog, like all the Philippine languages about which anything is known, belongs to the Malayo-Polynesian family of speech, which embraces the idioms spoken on the islands of Polynesia, Melanesia, and Malaysia, on the Malay peninsula, and on the island of Madagascar.

Tagalog has reached a high degree of linguistic development, but like all its sister tongues is primarily a spoken language. No literature in the narrower sense of elegant and artistic writing exists. There is, however, a considerable body of native poetry, some of which has been written down. The large majority of the compositions in Tagalog are of a religious character, catechisms, novenas, lives of the saints, etc., mostly translations from the Spanish. There are also several Tagalog newspapers, a number of poetical romances called *corridos*, dramas, and a few miscellaneous works.

Tagalog has been influenced to some extent by the languages with which it has come in contact. First in some pre-historic period it was subject like most of its sister tongues to a strong Sanskrit influence, which resulted in the borrowing of a considerable body of Sanskrit words, e. g., *mukhâ* 'face' (San. *mukha*), *bâsa* 'read' (San. *bhāṣā* 'language'), *salitâ* 'story' (San. *carita* 'done'), *âsa* 'hope' (San. *ācā*). [Compare Bibliography under BLAKE, KERN, PARDO DE TAVERA.] Later under the Spanish regime the Tagalogs naturally adopted a number of words from the Spaniards, particularly those pertaining to Christianity, the religion of their conquerors, e. g., *pârè* 'priest' (Span. *padre*), *cumpisál* 'confess' (Span. *confesar*). The syntax

of the language was also modified in some respects under this influence, certain cumbersome native constructions being replaced by simpler ones modeled after the Spanish (cf. §§ 43, 182, 191). The Chinese of the Philippines, who form the very important class of small tradesmen and shopkeepers, have introduced a few Chinese words into the language to denote specifically Chinese things, e. g., *sa* 'tea' (Chin. *cha*). At the present day a number of words are being borrowed from the Americans, e. g., *bébol* 'baseball.'

Tagalog is almost a non-inflectional language; there is no inflection to denote gender, or person or number, and none to denote case except with certain pronouns. This lack of inflection is to some extent compensated by the use of reduplication and of various derivative particles.

The most characteristic features of the language, which it possesses in common with its sister Philippine tongues are,

- a) the prevailing use of the passive construction,
- b) the use of connective particles to join modifying and modified word,
- c) the power of verbalizing practically any word, no matter of what part of speech.

PART FIRST. ALPHABET, ORTHOGRAPHY, AND PHONOLOGY.

I. ALPHABET AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

§ 1. When the Spaniards discovered the Philippine Islands in 1521, the Tagálogs possessed an alphabet of their own, but it was soon superseded by the Román alphabet used by the Spaniards. At the present day the reading and writing of these ancient characters is to the natives a lost art.¹

§ 2. The alphabet introduced by the Spaniards preserved all the peculiarities of Spanish orthography, which were useless and unnecessary in the spelling of native words. While the majority of books are still printed with this orthography a number of improvements in the spelling have been suggested (cf. BLUMENTRITT in Bibliography) and to some extent adopted, and most of these, with some few in addition, have been introduced in this grammar. The following are the principal changes in the old orthography, viz.:

- a) *c* before *a*, *o*, *u*, and *q* before *i*, *e*, both representing a *k* sound, are written *k*, e. g., instead of *canin*, *aquin*; *kanin*, *akin*.
- b) *gu* before *i*, *e*, representing a hard *g* sound, is written *g*, e. g., instead of *saguing*; *saging*.
- c) *u* at the beginning of a syllable before a vowel, and at the end of a word after *i*, and *o* at the end of a word after *a*, are written *w*, e. g., instead of *uica*, *aliu*, *ica*; *wika*, *aliw*, *ikaw*.

¹ For this ancient alphabet cf. C. MARCILLA Y MARTIN, *Estudio de los antiguos alfabetos filipinos*, Malabón, 1895.

- d) Final *r* is written *d*, e. g., instead of *bucor*, *bucod*.
- e) *ø* is dropped from the alphabet (except in foreign words) being always written *i*, e. g., instead of *babaye*, *babayi*.
- f) Some attempt has been made to remedy the confusion existing between the letters *u* and *o*, *o* being ordinarily used only in the final syllable, e. g., *mo*, *ano*; or in the penult when the final syllable contains *o*, e. g., *doon*, *tutoo*.
- g) An apostrophe is used as the sign of elision instead of the older cumbersome device of two commas, e. g., instead of *ama,t*, — *ama't*.
- h) A reversed apostrophe is used instead of a dash to indicate that a vowel following a consonant is preceded by the glottal catch and stands in a different syllable, e. g., *gab'i* instead of *gab-i*.

§ 3. The alphabet used in this grammar consists of four vowel signs, *a*, *i*, *o*, *u*; and fifteen consonant signs *b*, *d*, *g*, *h*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *ng*, *p*, *r*, *s*, *t*, *w*, *y*: *ng* when it begins a syllable is written with the *tilde*, viz., *ng̃*.

In writing foreign words other letters are sometimes used, e. g., *Elvíra*, *Juán*, *cha* (tea).

The acute accent $\acute{}$ indicates the accent of a word, the grave accent $\grave{}$, the final glottal catch; when a final accented vowel is followed by the glottal catch, the two marks are combined into the circumflex $\hat{}$ (cf. §§ 5, 12).

The apostrophe $\acute{}$ indicates elision (cf. § 10); the reversed apostrophe $\grave{}$ indicates the glottal catch in the interior of a word, and is used after a consonant to show that the following vowel stands in the following syllable (cf. §§ 8, 10, 11).

The dash— is used to show that a word is made up of two or more distinct elements. It is regularly used between a word ending in a vowel and the ligature *ng* (cf. § 20), in compound nouns formed with *may* (cf. § 232), after the quasi-verb *a* (cf. § 234), and after particles with separate accent (cf. § 12).

When the final *ng* of a word is derived from final *n* + the

ligature *ng*, it is printed in a different type from the rest of the word (cf. § 20).

A star * before a form indicates that the form does not actually occur in the language.

II. PHONOLOGY.

VOWELS.

§ 4. The vowels have in general the Italian pronunciation, but they are always shorter, even in accented syllables, than the corresponding long vowels in English:

a is similar to the *a* in 'father,' e. g., *áso* 'dog,' *abála* 'occupation.'

i is similar to the *i* in 'marine,' e. g., *ibig* 'wish,' *iná* 'mother.'

u is similar to the *oo* in 'moon,' e. g., *búkíd* 'country,' *puti* 'white.'

o has a sound between *o* and *u* similar to the *o* in 'off,' e. g., *akó* 'I,' *táwo* 'man.'

I is sometimes pronounced as the *e* in *bed*, e. g., *masilán* or *maselán* 'prudish.' Sounds written *o* are sometimes pronounced more like *u*, though rarely in a final syllable; sounds written *u* are often pronounced as *o*, e. g., *útang* or *ótang* 'debt'; a final *o* generally becomes *u* before a suffix, e. g., *ulohán* or *uluhán* 'big-headed' or 'bolster' from *úlo* 'head.' These facts have led to the very frequent statement that there are but three vowel sounds in Tagalog, viz., *a*, a sound between *i* and *e*, and a sound between *u* and *o*.

§ 5. Final vowels are either simple as above, or have what the Spaniards call a guttural accent. These latter are really vowels followed by the glottal catch, a sound like that at the end of our negative *no*, in the colloquial pronunciation that may be represented approximately as *nok*. This glottal catch is represented by the grave accent as in § 3, e. g., *wikà* 'word,' *hári* 'king,' *palálò* 'haughty,' *walà* 'not having,' *hingi* 'ask for,' *tayò* 'raise.' Words ending in a glottal catch do not insert *h* before the suffixes *an* and *in*, i. e., the glottal catch remains between the two vowels, which stand in different syllables (cf.

§ 11).—e. g., *wikáin* 'said,' *kaharian* 'kingdom.' The glottal catch is dropped before the ligature *-ng*, and before 't and 'y, the syncopated forms of *at* and *ay*, e. g., *báta-ng*, *walá-ng*, *hindít*, *wika'y* for *bátà+ng*, *walâ+ng*, *hindì+at*, *wikà+ay* (cf. §§ 19, 20). These vowels with glottal catch will be called guttural vowels.

§ 6. The *u* of the particle *um* often becomes *i* under the influence of an *i* in the following syllable, e. g., *iminúm* for *uminúm*.

Two *o*'s separated by the glottal catch (cf. § 11) in the last two syllables of a word, e. g., *tutóo* 'true,' *doón* 'there,' are often contracted into a sound very similar to the long *oo* in 'moon.'

§ 7. The diphthongs are *aw*, *ay*, *iw*;

aw is pronounced about as *ow* in 'how,'

ay " " " " *i* in 'pine,'

iw " " " " *ee-oo*.

In some words *aw* and *ay* are contracted respectively to sounds like *ow* in 'low,' and *ay* in 'say,' e. g., *ikáw* 'thou,' *may* 'have,' *mamayâ* 'a while after.' Words ending in an uncontracted diphthong are treated as if they ended in a consonant; the contracted diphthongs are treated like the simple vowels, e. g., *ikáw'y* (i. e. *ikó'y*) for *ikáw ay*.

CONSONANTS.

§ 8. The consonants *b*, *d*, *h*, *k*, *l*, *m*, *n*, *p*, *s*, *t*, *w*, *y*, are pronounced about as in English: *g* is always hard as in 'garden,' 'girl,' *r* is a sound between *r* and *d* though nearer to *r*; it is in most cases derived from a *d* standing between two vowels.

ng before a consonant or as final is equivalent to the English guttural nasal *ng* in 'sing'; the same sound may stand at the beginning of a syllable, being written in this case *nǵ*, e. g., *nǵálan* 'name.' When a suffix beginning with a vowel is added to a word ending in *ng*, the nasal becomes part of the following syllable, and is written *nǵ*, e. g., *sagingán* from *ságing* 'banana.'

When as the result of syncope (cf. § 10) *ng̃* comes to stand before a consonant, the tilde is dropped, e. g., *tingnán* from *ting̃ín* 'look' + *an*.

The glottal catch or hiatus is really a consonant; at the end of a word it is represented by the grave accent, and in the interior of a word after a consonant by the inverted apostrophe (cf. § 3). It occurs regularly between two consecutive vowels, but here it has not seemed necessary to represent it by any special sign (cf. § 11).

§ 9. When a *d* becomes intervocalic in the processes of word formation, it usually becomes *r*, e. g., *daráan* from *dáan* 'road': sometimes this change takes place when the first vowel is in the preceding word; this vowel may be either simple or guttural, e. g., *siyá rin*, *walâ rini*; sometimes a *d* becomes *r* when one of the adjacent sounds is a semi-vowel or liquid, e. g., *mayroón* from *doón*, *marlá* for **madlá*.

There is a certain amount of interchange between *n* and *ng*; apparently the change is that of intervocalic *n* to *ng*.—e. g., *kanino*, *kañino* 'whose?' *kañina*, *kanina* 'a while ago.' The final *n* of a prefix before the initial vowel of a root usually becomes *ng̃*, e. g., *mañisdâ* (*man* + *isdâ*) 'to fish'; or it may be that original *ng* is preserved in this position, cf. below.

The consonantal combinations *nb*, *np* are regularly reduced to *m* (*nb*, *np* > *mb*, *mp* > *mm* > *m*); *nt*, *ns* and sometimes *nd* to *n* (*nt*, *ns* > *nn* > *n*); *nk* and sometimes *nh* to *ng̃* (*nk*, *nh* > *ngk*, *ngh* > *ngng* > *ng*); when they would occur in the processes of word formation; sometimes *nh*, *ny* become *ngh*, *ngy* (in this case *n* between vowel and semi-vowel suffers the same change as intervocalic *n*, just as in the case of *r*),—e. g., *mamigáy* (*man-bigáy*) 'give much,' *panúlat* (*pan-súlat*) 'pen,' *mañúha* (*man-kúha*) 'take much,' *mañgalimbáwa* (*man-halimbáwa*) 'judge some one else by oneself'; *manghúli* (*man-húli*) 'live by rapine'; *mangyári* 'be able,' but *mandiri* 'be nauseated,' *manhánap* 'scout.'

It is also possible in these combinations to regard the nasal as originally *ng*; in which case *ngb*, etc. would become *mb*, *mm*, *m*, etc., as above, and the *ng* in such forms as *manghúli*, *mang-yári* would be original. Similarly the *ng* before

initial vowels of a root may be the original sound. Cf. §§ 68, 69, 153, 158.

Final *n* + *ng* becomes *ngng* and is simplified to *ng*. This *ng* will be printed in a type different from the rest of the word in order to indicate the presence of the connective particle, and to distinguish these words from those whose roots end in *ng* (e. g., *galing* 'good').—e. g., *báyan* 'town' + *ng* is written *báyang*, *báyang*.

The final syllable *-on* of the preposition *sampón* 'together with' becomes *ô* before a following *n*, e. g., *sampô niyá* 'together with him.'

An *h* is inserted between a root ending in a simple vowel and the suffixes *in*, *an*, e. g., *sabihin* (*sábi* + *in*) 'said,' *unahan* (*úna* + *an*) 'front part' (cf. § 81 a, b).

ELISION, SYNCOPE, AND SPORADIC CHANGES.

§ 10. The *a* of the words *ay* and *at* is often elided, though not necessarily, after the final vowel, simple or guttural, of a preceding word, the guttural vowels becoming simple (cf. § 5), e. g., *siyá'y* for *siyá ay* 'he is,' *itô't* for *itô at* 'this and,' *hindî't* for *hindî at* 'no, for.' After a final *n*, both the *n* and the *a* of the particles may be elided, e. g., *báya'y* for *báyan ay* 'town is,' *ama't* for *amain at* 'uncle and.'

The vowel of the final syllable of a root is often syncopated before the suffixes *in*, *an*; roots ending in a guttural vowel preserve the glottal catch so that the vowel of the suffix apparently begins the final syllable; roots ending in a simple vowel insert *h* before the suffixes.—e. g., *gaw'in*, *gaw'an* from *gawâ* 'do,' *bilhin*, *bilhan* from *bili* 'buy,' *saktin*, *saktan* from *sakit* 'sickness' (cf. § 81, b).

For certain other sporadic phonetic changes resulting from the addition of the suffixes *in*, *an*, cf. § 81, c, d, e.

THE SYLLABLE.

§ 11. A syllable may consist of a single vowel, consonant + vowel, vowel + consonant, consonant + vowel + consonant,

consonant + diphthong. A single consonant between two vowels belongs with the second, except as stated below. No syllable can begin or end with a double consonant. When two consonants (*ng* though a digraph represents a single consonant) stand together, the syllable division is always between them. When two vowels stand together they form separate syllables, being separated by the glottal catch or hiatus.—e. g., *a-sá-wa* 'spouse,' *ik-lí* 'shortness,' *mag-la-rô* 'play,' *bá-hay* 'house,' *á-raw* 'day,' *pag-ga-wâ* 'doing,' *muk-hâ* 'face,' *mang-gá-ling* 'come from,' *mang-yá-ri* 'be able,' *tik-ling* 'a kind of bird,' *bak-lád* 'fish-pond,' *sa-án* 'where?' *tí-ís* 'firmness,' *do-ón* 'there,' *ká-in* 'to eat,' *ya-ón* 'that.'

When most prefixes ending in a consonant [viz., *mag*, *nag*, *pag*, *tag*, *tig*, *sang*, *sing*; (*ma*)*gin*(*g*), (*mag*)*kan*] are applied to a root beginning with a vowel, the final consonant and initial vowel stand in different syllables, e. g., *mag-ísip* 'think,' *magin-ásáwa* 'become married,' *sang-áraw* 'a whole day.'

Words made with the infix-prefixes *um* and *in*, and with the suffixes *an* and *in*, follow the regular rules of syllable division, e. g., *u-mibig* 'love,' *i-náral* 'taught,' *su-mù-lat* (*súlat*) 'write,' *bi-ná-sa* (*bása*) 'read,' *su-lá-tin* 'written,' *su-lá-tan* 'writing-place.'

The prefixes *man* and its related forms (viz., *nan*, *pan*) change *n* to *ng* before an initial vowel. This *ng* forms the initial of the following syllable and is therefore written *ng̃*, e. g., *ma-ng̃isdâ* (*isdâ*) 'to fish.'

In words consisting of two identical syllables or of two identical dissyllabic roots beginning with a vowel, the syllable division comes between the two identical parts, e. g., *ol'ól* 'mad,' *ak'ák* 'croaking,' *araw'araw* 'every day.'

In the colloquial language of Manila and vicinity, many of these rules of syllable division are disregarded, e. g., *tí-klíng*, *ba-klád*, *sáan* (= *sán*) *dóon* (= *doun*), *káin* (= *káyn*), *o-lól*, etc.

ACCENT.

§ 12. The accent of words is not so strong as in English, and is regularly on one of the last two syllables, but there is

no rule for determining in all cases on which of these two syllables it falls.

Certain prefixes have an accent of their own in addition to the regular accent. These prefixes are *maká*, *má* (§ 398, d), *pá* (§ 102) and *pagká* (§ 295); *á* is in each pronounced as if it were *aa*.

Usually, words which denote quick or sudden action are accented on the ultima, those which denote slow or deliberate action, on the penult, e. g., *lákad* 'walk, *lakád* 'go hastily.'

§ 13. The following classes of words are generally accented on the ultima, viz.:

- a) all words formed by monosyllabic reduplication of a syllable ending in a consonant (including diphthongs), e. g., *ak'ák* 'croaking,' *kamkám* 'pull up by the roots,' *baybáy* 'shore,' *tawtáw* 'excess.'
- b) all words ending in a consonant formed by final reduplication as in § 19, (5) and (6), e. g., *bulaklák* 'flower,' *kaliskís* 'fish scale,' *halokípkíp* 'folding of arms,' *talaytáy* 'flow (of blood).'
- c) all words which have two consonants before the vowel of the final syllable, e. g., *sindák* 'sadness,' *tampál* 'slap,' *baloktót* 'intermingled.'
- d) all words whose last syllable begins with a vowel following a consonant (or more accurately with the glottal catch), e. g., *big'át* 'weight,' *bot'ó* 'bone, stone or seed of fruit,' *tam'ís* 'sweetness,' *tab'á* 'fat.'

§ 14. The following classes of words are generally accented on the penult, viz.:

- a) words formed by monosyllabic reduplication of a syllable ending in a vowel, e. g., *káka* 'elder brother,' *pípi* 'dumb.'
- b) words consisting of fully reduplicated roots ending in a consonant, e. g., *alang'álang* 'on account of,' *gunamgúnam* 'imagination.'
- c) words of two syllables with identical vowels, which vowels stand in immediate juxtaposition, e. g., *dáan* 'road,' *póon* 'lord,' *bóo* 'entire'; the most important exceptions to this rule are *doón* 'there,' *sáan* 'where?'

§ 15. Sometimes two entirely distinct roots differ from

each other only in the accent, e. g., *bagá* 'perchance,' *bága* 'live coal,' *bobó* 'be frightened (of chickens, animals), *bóbo* 'net,' *silá* 'they,' *sila* 'care, pains.'

Sometimes a difference in meaning in words of identical form, derived from the same root is indicated by a difference of accent, e. g.,

lalaki 'will grow,' *laláki* 'man, male,' from *laki* 'grow, become large.'

kaibigán 'love,' *kaibigan* 'friend,' from *ibig* 'want, wish, love.'

magtolóy 'proceed,' *magtóloy* 'conclude' from *tóloy* 'continue.'

magpaaráw 'expose to sun,' *magpaáraw* 'cause sun to shine,' from *araw* 'sun, day.'

§ 16. Words of more than two syllables with ultimate accent, and those of more than three syllables with penultimate accent, have a secondary stress on the second syllable before the principal stress. In words with ultimate accent this secondary stress is about as strong as the primary, e. g., *kániyá* 'his,' *dálitâ* 'suffer.'

§ 17. When a suffix is added to a word with penultimate accent, the stress must be shifted to one of the last two syllables, e. g.,

sulátin 'written' from *súlat* 'write.'

usaptin 'case at law' from *úsap* 'speak, argue.'

paligóan 'bathing-place' from *paligò* 'bathe.'

balútan 'envelope' from *bálot* 'wrap up.'

When a suffix is added to a word with ultimate accent, the stress in many cases remains on the same syllable, but it is often shifted to the last syllable of the compound, e. g.,

tiyánin 'corpulent' from *tiyán* 'belly.'

hulíhan 'after part' from *hulí* 'last.'

inumán 'drinking vessel' from *inum* 'drink.'

initlogán 'something made with eggs' from *itlòg* 'egg.'

malologdín 'joyful' from *logód* 'joy.'

PART SECOND. MORPHOLOGY.

I. FORM OF WORDS IN GENERAL.

ROOTS, PARTICLES, DERIVATIVES, PARTS OF SPEECH, INFLECTION.

§ 18. The component parts of words are roots and particles. A root is a simple word of two or more syllables without formative element, the great majority being dissyllabic, e. g.,

banál 'righteous.'

lákad 'walk, go.'

gawâ 'make, do.'

súlat 'write.'

inúm 'drink.'

asáwa 'spouse.'

lualhátì 'glory.'

Particles are of two kinds, independent and derivative. Independent particles are, viz., all monosyllabic words, and some of two syllables, these latter being usually compounded of monosyllabic particles. Those of two syllables are hardly to be distinguished from roots and are often treated as such in derivation.—e. g.,

ko 'my.'

mo 'thy.'

pa 'yet.'

na 'now.'

na-mán 'also.'

lámang 'only.'

walâ 'is not, has not.'

Derivative particles are those which are combined with a root to form derivatives. These consist of one, two or three

syllables, those of more than one syllable being compounded of two or more monosyllabic particles. A few of these particles are suffixed or infixed, the majority are prefixed.—e. g.,

mag-	}	(verbal prefixes).
ma-pa-		
mag-pa-ka-		
um-		(verbal infix and prefix).
-an		(verbal and nominal suffix).

From roots other words are made by the various kinds of reduplication, and by combination with the derivative particles. Reduplicated forms of roots will be spoken of as reduplicated roots, words made with derivative particles, as derivatives.—e. g.,

araw-áraw 'every day.'

mag-bigáy 'give.'

l-um-ákad 'go.'

upó-an 'seat.'

mag-bibigáy 'will give.'

Words are divided according to their function in a sentence into a number of classes called the Parts of Speech. In Tagalog these are the Ligature, Article, Pronoun, Numeral, Noun, Adjective, Quasi-Verb, Verb, Adverb, Preposition and Conjunction. In many cases a word which belongs to one part of speech may be used as another.

Certain words are inflected, i. e., varied by changes at the beginning or end of the word, to express various modifications in meaning. The article and certain pronouns are inflected to express case; verbs, to express voice and tense.—e. g.,

ang, nang 'the, of the.'

itó, nitó, dito 'this, of this, in this.'

akó, ákin 'I, mine'.

maglarô 'to play.'

naglarô 'played.'

paglarô (passive stem).

FORMS OF REDUPLICATION.

§ 19. Reduplication consists in the repetition of one or more syllables at the beginning or end of a word. The final

consonant of a syllable or combination of syllables which is to be reduplicated, does not appear in the reduplication, except in cases where the reduplication is added at the end of the word as in (5) and (6), and in (1) and (3) when the consonant is the final consonant of a word or root. The following are the principal varieties of reduplication, viz.:

- 1) monosyllabic, where a single syllable is reduplicated to form a root, e. g., *ol'ól* 'mad,' *ak'ák* 'croaking.'
- 2) partial, where one syllable near the beginning of a word is reduplicated, this syllable being either the first syllable of a root or one of the syllables of a prefix, e. g.,
susúlat from *súlat* 'write.'
magkakauítang from *magka-ítang* 'owe.'
magiginbanál from *magin-banál* 'become good.'

In reduplicating foreign words beginning with a mute + liquid, the liquid is not repeated, e. g.,

nagtatrabájo from *trabájo* 'work.'
nagpipritos from *pritos* 'fry.'

- 3) full, in which the first two syllables of a word or root are repeated, e. g.,
araw'araw from *araw* 'day.'
sangposangpówo from *sangpówo* 'ten.'
mabutibúti from *ma-búti* 'good.'
maginhaginháwa from *ma-ginháwa* 'wholesome.'

- 4) combined partial and full which has a distinct meaning of its own, and is not simply a combination of the two kinds with the meaning of both, e. g.,
iisaisá from *isá* 'one.'
kakatakátáwo from *táwo* 'man.'
babalibaligtád from *baligtád* 'toss.'

- 5) reduplication of the final syllable, e. g.,
bulaklák 'flower' from **bulak*,
himaymáy 'separate meat from bones' from *himay* (same).
- 6) final reduplication which consists in adding at the end of a dissyllabic word a syllable consisting of the initial consonant of the first syllable and of the vowel and final consonant of the last syllable, e. g.,

kaliskís 'scale (of fish)' from *kalís* 'to scrape.'

kayangkáng 'spread wings, extend the arms' from *káyang*
'extend hands in menace.'

II. THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

LIGATURE.

§ 20. In general words that stand to one another in the relation of modified and modifier are joined together by connective particles called the ligatures. The particle is regularly *-ng* after a vowel or *n*, *na* after all other consonants and after diphthongs. A guttural vowel regularly becomes simple before *-ng* (cf. § 5). In the case of a final *n*, *n + ng* > *ngng*, which is simplified, becoming *ng* (cf. § 9).—e. g.,

mabúti-*ng* táwo 'good man.'

walá-*ng* (*walâ + ng*) táwo 'there is no one.'

báyang (*báyan + ng*) malakí 'large town.'

malakás na kabáyo 'strong horse.'

malínaw na túbig 'clear water.'

báhay na bató 'stone house.'

§ 21. In some cases *-n* is used instead of *-ng*, e. g.,

báro-*n* kastíla 'Spanish shirt.'

walá-*n* gálang 'without respect.'

Words ending in *n*, therefore, not infrequently stand without ligature, *n + n* being simplified to *n*, e. g.,

dî malimótan matandâ 'not to be forgotten old man.'

dilán masamá 'all evil.'

ákin amá 'my father.'

ilán áraw 'how many days?'

§ 22. When one or more words are inserted between two words which are connected by the ligature, the ligature is placed after the last of the inserted words, instead of after the first of the original group. The particle *manǵá*, however, never causes this shift.—e. g.,

kapatíd na babáyi 'sister'—kapatíd ko-*ng* babáyi 'my sister.'

báta-*ng* mabaít 'intelligent boy'—bátà ka ngáni-*ng* mabaít
'you are indeed an intelligent boy.'

lálo-ng marúnung 'more learned' — lálo pa-ng marúnung
'still more learned.'

itó-ng táwo 'this man'—ító-ng mangã táwo 'these men.'

THE ARTICLES.

§ 23. There are a number of words which may be classed as articles. The most important are, viz., the definite, corresponding in general to English 'the'; the personal, used before all names of persons; the inclusive, used before names of persons to indicate that together with the person mentioned are included those who are associated with him in any way, as, for example, his relatives, friends, companions, etc.; the indefinite, corresponding somewhat to English 'a, an,' but having a much more restricted use. The first three articles have three case forms, nominative, genitive, and oblique, viz.:

	<i>Definite.</i>	<i>Personal.</i>	<i>Inclusive.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	ang	si	siná
<i>Gen.</i>	nang	ni	niná
<i>Obl.</i>	sa	kay	kaná

Instead of *kay* and *kaná*, *sa kay*, *sa kaná* are sometimes employed.

With the personal and inclusive articles may be classed the particles *a*, *a-ng*, *pan* 'father of,' *i* 'mother of,' used before the name of the first born child; and *ka* 'elder brother of, uncle of.'

The indefinite article is expressed by the numeral *isá* 'one,' the cases of which are indicated by prefixing the forms of the definite article, viz.:

<i>Nom.</i>	isá, ang isá
<i>Gen.</i>	nang isá
<i>Obl.</i>	sa isá

PRONOUNS.

§ 24. Pronouns may be divided into Personal, Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite. The Numerals, with the exception of numeral adverbs, are also to be classed as

pronouns, but for the sake of convenience they are considered separately. The personal and demonstrative pronouns, and the interrogative *sino* 'who?' have, like the articles, several case forms. The other pronouns with the exception of the simple relative (which is invariable) are declined by prefixing the forms of the definite article. There is no distinction of gender. When used as adjectives, the case of the noun they modify is regularly expressed by the article except in the case of the demonstratives.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§ 25. The forms of the personal pronouns are, viz.:

	<i>1st pers.</i>	<i>2nd pers.</i>	<i>3rd pers.</i>
<i>Sg. Nom.</i>	akó	ikáw, ka	siyá
<i>Gen.</i>	ákin, ko, (nákin)	iyó, mo, (niyó)	kaniyá, niyá
<i>Obl.</i>	sa ákin	sa iyó	sa kaniyá
<i>Pl. Nom.</i>	tayó	kayó, (kamó)	silá
<i>Gen.</i>	átin, nátin	inyó, ninyó	kanilá, nilá
<i>Obl.</i>	sa átin	sa inyó	sa kanilá
<i>Pl. Nom.</i>	kamí		
<i>Gen.</i>	ámin, námin		
<i>Obl.</i>	sa ámin		
<i>Dual, Nom.</i>	katá, kitá		
<i>Gen.</i>	kanitá, atá; ta		
<i>Obl.</i>	sa kanitá, sa atá		

The genitive forms which are the same as the oblique forms without *sa*, always stand before the word they modify; *nákin* and *niyó* are used only as in § 234; the other forms are post-positive. All forms of the genitive except *nákin* and *niyó* may be employed as possessive adjectives (cf. § 172). The oblique case may indicate 'at the house, residence of,' e. g., *sa ákin* 'at my house,' *sa ámin* 'at our house.' *Tayó* includes, *kamí* excludes, the person spoken to. The dual *katá* besides meaning 'we two,' is used as equivalent to *ka* when a person addresses himself, and has also a peculiar signification in connection with the passive (cf. § 350, 2). *Ikáw* is used at the beginning of a

sentence before the whole of its predicate, otherwise *ka* is employed; *kamó* is a dialectic form. The third person plural has also fully reduplicated forms, e. g., *silasilá*, *kanikanilá*.

The prepositive genitives of the personal pronouns are used as possessive pronouns; they are declined by means of the definite article, e. g.,

Nom. ang ákin, ákin 'mine.'

Gen. nang ákin

Obl. sa ákin

The oblique preceded by the definite article has a similar meaning, e. g.,

ang sa ákin 'that of mine.'

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 26. The forms of the demonstrative pronouns are, viz.:

Nom. yari, yirí, 'this.' itó, 'this.'

Gen. nirí nitó

Obl. díní dito

Nom. iyán 'that.' yaón, yoón 'that.'

Gen. niyán niyaón, niyón, nión, noón

Obl. diyán doón

These singular forms are also used for the plural (cf. § 369) when used as adjectives the plural is indicated by *manḡá* as in § 165. Instead of the regular case forms, the nominative after a case form of the definite article is sometimes used, e. g., *nang itó*, *sa itó*, *sa yaón*, etc. On the use of *ang* as a demonstrative pronoun 'that,' cf. § 183. *Yari* denotes a thing very near the speaker, *itó* a thing near at hand, equidistant from both speaker and person addressed; *itó* however, is much more common, being frequently used instead of *yari*: *iyán* denotes an object near the person addressed, *yaón*, an object which is remote from both the speaker and the person addressed.

The demonstrative pronouns may also be used as adjectives.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 27. The simple relative pronouns 'who,' 'which,' 'that,' are expressed by the ligature *ng*, *na*, the compound 'he who,' 'that which,' 'what,' by the article *ang*, by *siyá-ng* or by *ang siyá-ng*: *siyá-ng* is used only for the nominative, in the other compound relatives the article may be varied to express case.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 28. The interrogative pronouns are the following, viz.:

- sino 'who?' (of persons).
- anó 'what?' (of things).
- alín 'which?' (of both persons and things).
- ilán 'how many?'
- magkanó 'how much?'

The ordinal and distributive derivatives of *ilán* are used as interrogative pronouns (cf. §§ 35, 37, 38, 39).

The adverbs made from interrogatives by prefixing *ga* (cf. § 123) may also be used as interrogative pronouns.

Sino is thus declined:

	<i>Sg.</i>	<i>Pl.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	sino	sinosino
<i>Gen.</i>	kanino, nino	kanikanino
<i>Obl.</i>	(sa) kanino	(sa) kanikanino

Kanino has the by-form *kanġino*. The plural used adjectively may also be indicated by placing the particle *manġá* before or after the forms of the singular, the ligature being used between the two in the second case, e. g., *manġá sino*, *sino-ng manġá*. *Nino* follows the word it modifies, and is employed only as in § 354, 1; *kanino* precedes the word it modifies; the oblique form without *sa* is used especially after prepositions and in verbal sentences (cf. § 353).

The cases of the other pronouns are expressed by the definite article before the pronoun, e. g., *nang anó*, *sa anó*. *Anó* and *alín* have intensive forms made with full reduplication which are usually plural, viz., *anoanó*, *alín'alín*; the plural used

adjectively may also be made with *manǵá* used as in the case of *sino*, either with the simple or reduplicated forms, e. g. *manǵá anó*, *anó-ng manǵá*, *manǵá anoanó*, *manǵá alín*, etc. The cases of these intensive and plural forms are indicated as in the singular. *Magkanó* with partial reduplication, viz., *magkakanó*, has a distributive meaning, viz., 'how much apiece, per pound, dozen, etc.'

The interrogative pronouns may be used as adjectives: the genitive *kanino* is used as an interrogative possessive adjective just like the prepositive genitives of the personal pronouns; it is also used as an interrogative possessive pronoun in the predicate of a simple copulative sentence.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 29. A series of indefinite pronouns are formed from the interrogatives by adding the particle *man*, e. g.,

sinomán 'somebody, anybody.'

anomán 'something, anything.'

alinmán 'anybody, anything.'

Sinomán may be declined by the forms of the definite article placed before it, e. g., *nang sinomán*, *sa sinomán*; or it may be declined like *sino*, the postpositive genitive being *ninomán*. The other indefinites are declined like the corresponding interrogatives. All these pronouns may be employed as adjectives in the sense of 'some, any.'

§ 30. Other indefinite pronouns, which may also in most cases be employed as pronominal adjectives, are:

kuán 'such and such, so and so.'

bálang 'any, each, every.'

báwa't 'each (adj.).'

isá 'one, other (of two).'

isamán 'no one (in connection with a negative).'

ibá 'other.'

ilán 'some.'

kapuwá 'both, fellow.'

lahát	}	'all.'
tanán		
taná		
písan		
dilán		
dilá		
páwà	}	bóò 'entire, complete, all.'
bóò		
sarisári	}	'various, divers things.'
marámi		
madlá	}	'much, many.'
marlá		
kauntí	}	'little, few.'
muntí		
mahígit	}	'more.'
hígit		
lálò		
lábis	}	'in excess, more.'
malábis		
labí		'too much.'
kúlang		'less.'
alangán		'insufficient, wanting.'
siyá	}	'enough.'
kasiyáhan		
kaigíhan		
katatagán		
saríli		'self, own.'
pára	}	'likeness, similitude.'
páris		
gáya		
ganán		'that which pertains, belongs to.'

§ 31. 'Every' in time expressions is indicated also by full reduplication of the noun, or by the conjunction *tiwi-ng* used before the noun (cf. § 120), or by the ordinal distributives (cf. §§ 38; 358, 2).

'Self' is also expressed by an affirmative adverb, especially *din* (cf. §§ 125; 355, 5).

'Such,' 'such a,' 'such a thing,' are expressed by the adverbs

formed from the demonstratives by prefixing *ga*, used as pronouns and pronominal adjectives, e. g., *ganitó*, *ganiyán ganoón*, etc. (cf. § 123).

'Same' is expressed by the adverb *din* in connection with the personal pronoun of the third person or a demonstrative; as an adjective it is also expressed by the adverbs *ganitó*, etc., used as adjectives + *din*. — e. g., *siyá rin*, *itó rin*, *ganitó rin*, etc. 'the same.'

The pronouns 'nothing,' 'no one,' and the adjective 'no' are expressed by *isamán* in connection with a negative, and by the various locutions with the negative particle *walâ* (cf. §§ 228, 229, 230, 233, 271).

§ 32. The idea of the indefinites meaning 'little,' 'few' may be emphasized by partial reduplication, viz., *kakauntî*, *mumuntî*. These forms are used especially for the plural.¹

The plural of some indefinite pronouns is occasionally formed by preceding *manġá* just as if they were nouns, e. g., *manġá ibá* 'others,' *manġá isá* 'some.' With *ilán* 'some,' which is already plural, *manġá* simply emphasizes the indefinite idea as with the cardinals (cf. § 34); e. g., *manġá ilán* 'some.'

THE NUMERALS.

CARDINALS.

§ 33. The cardinal numerals from 'one' to 'ten' are as follows, viz.:

isá 'one.'	ánim 'six.'
dalawá 'two.'	pitó 'seven.'
tatló 'three.'	waló 'eight.'
ápat 'four.'	siyám 'nine.'
limá 'five.'	sangpówò 'ten.'

In counting consecutively *pówò* is used for 'ten.' The prefix *sang* is an abbreviation of *isá-ng* 'one' (cf. below and § 159). In some districts *pólò* is used for *pówò*.

¹ Both simple and reduplicated forms of *muntî* are also employed as descriptive adjectives meaning 'small' (cf. § 53).

From 'eleven' to 'nineteen' the numerals are formed by prefixing *labí* 'more, over' to the units, to which it is joined by the ligature, e. g.,

labí-ng isá 'eleven.'

labí-ng dalawá 'twelve.'

The tens are expressed by combining the units with following *pówò* 'ten'; the units are adjectives and are hence followed by the ligature. — e. g.,

dalawá-ng pówò 'twenty.'

tatló-ng pówò 'thirty.'

ápat na pówò 'forty.'

The numbers between the tens are expressed by adding the units to the tens, the two being connected by the conjunction *at* 'and,' e. g.,

dalawá-ng pówo 't isá 'twenty-one.'

tatló-ng pówo 't dalawá 'thirty-two.'

ápat na pówo 't siyám 'forty-nine.'

'One hundred' and the other powers of 'ten' are always preceded by *sang-* or *isá-ng* 'one,' e. g.,

<i>sangdáan</i>	}	'one hundred'.
<i>isá-ng dáan</i>		
<i>sanglíbo</i>	}	'one thousand.'
<i>isá-ng líbo</i>		
<i>sanglaksâ</i>	}	'ten thousand.'
<i>isá-ng laksâ</i>		
<i>sangyútà</i>	}	'one hundred thousand.'
<i>isá-ng yútà</i>		
<i>sang'angāw'āngāw</i>	}	'one million.'
<i>sangpówo-ng-yútà</i>		

The forms of 'ten' and its powers with *sang* are the ones employed in the derivative numerals, unless otherwise indicated.

The other hundreds, thousands, etc., are expressed by multiplication as in the case of the tens, *sang* being omitted, e. g.,

dalawá-ng dáan 'two hundred.'

tatló-ng líbo 'three thousand.'

ápat na laksâ 'four ten thousands, forty thousand.'

limá-ng yútà 'five hundred thousand.'

The numbers between the various hundreds, thousands, etc., are expressed by addition, as in the case of the numbers intermediate between the tens; when more than one numeral (those connected by the ligature being counted as one) is added, the conjunction *at* is used only between the last two. — e. g.,

sangdáa't isá 'one hundred and one.'

ápat na ráan at dalawá-ng pówò 'four hundred and twenty.'

dalawá-ng líbò't tatló-ng dáan 'two thousand, three hundred.'

tatló-ng laksá't limá-ng líbo 'thirty-five thousand.'

siyám na yúta't pitó-ng laksá 'nine hundred and seventy thousand.'

ánim na ráan dalawá-ng pówò't limá 'six hundred and twenty-five.'

waló-ng líbo siyám na raan tatló-ng pówò't isá 'eight thousand, nine hundred and thirty-one.'

§ 34. The interrogative *ilán* 'how many?' is closely related to the cardinals, and makes the same kind of derivatives, usually interrogative, but sometimes indefinite.

The cardinals above the first are themselves plural. When they are preceded by the plural particle *manǵá* they acquire an indefinite meaning 'about, some,' e. g.,

manǵá dalawá-ng pówò 'about twenty, some twenty.'

manǵá ilán } 'about how many?'
 } 'some few.'

To indicate that the number in question is more than the ten, hundred, etc., from which the count proceeds without specifying the intermediate amount, *labí* + the oblique case of the numeral is used, e. g.,

labí sa pówò 'over ten.'

labí sa dalawá-ng dáan 'over two hundred.'

The cardinals are used both as pronouns and adjectives.

The Spanish numerals are often used instead of these here given.

ORDINALS.

§ 35. The ordinals except the first are made by prefixing the particle *ika* to the cardinals; if the cardinal begins with *a*,

this *a* is contracted with the *a* of the particle; the second and third numerals are irregular; *sang* may be omitted with 'ten' and its powers.—e. g.,

úna, naúna 'first.'

ikalawá 'second.'

ikatló 'third.'

ikápat 'fourth.'

ikasangpówò } 'tenth.'

ikapówò

ikalabí-ng isá 'eleventh.'

ikadalawá-ng pówo't limá 'twenty-fifth.'

ikasangdáan } 'hundredth.'

ikaráan

ikasanglíbo } 'thousandth.'

ikalíbo

ikailán 'the how-many-eth?'

For 'second' and 'third' *pañgalawá* and *pañgatló* are also used. Forms without *i*, e. g., *kalimá* 'fifth,' are sometimes used to form verbs (cf. § 408, 2). The ordinals are used both as pronouns and adjectives.

FRACTIONS.

§ 36. The fractions, with the exception of the word for 'half,' are formed by prefixing *sa* to the ordinals, or are indicated by the ordinals themselves, either alone or joined by the ligature to *bahági* 'part,' e. g.,

kalahátì 'half.'

saikatló } 'third.'

ikatló(-ng bahági)

saikápat } 'fourth.'

ikápat(na bahági)

The forms with *sa* seem to be obsolete. For 'half' *ikalawá-ng bahági* is sometimes used.

When the numerator of the fraction is more than 'one,' both numerator and denominator are expressed by cardinals, the cardinal representing the numerator being followed by the

genitive of *bahági* modified by the cardinal representing the denominator, e. g.,

tatló nang ápat na bahági 'three-fourths.'

pitó nang waló-ng bahági 'seven-eighths.'

The combinations with *bahági* have the constructions of nouns; the other forms are used both as pronouns and adjectives.

DISTRIBUTIVES.

§ 37. By full reduplication of the cardinals a series of distributive numerals signifying 'so many at a time' are made, e. g.,

isaisá 'one by one, one after another.'

daladalawá 'two by two.'

limalimá 'five at a time.'

sangposangpówò 'ten at a time.'

labilabí-ng isá 'eleven at a time.'

daladalawá-ng pówò 'twenty at a time.'

sangdasangdáan 'one hundred at a time.'

ilan'ilán 'how many at a time?'

These numerals are used both as pronouns and adjectives.

§ 38. By full reduplication of the ordinals a series of distributive numerals signifying 'every two, three, etc.' are made, e. g.,

ikaikalawá 'every two.'

ikaikatló, 'every three.'

ikaikailán 'every how many?'

These are employed both as pronouns and adjectives.

§ 39. By prefixing *tig* to the cardinals, a series of distributive numerals are formed, which signify 'so many each, so many apiece.' The second and third are irregular, and from the fifth upward, all regularly reduplicate the first syllable of the cardinal. The powers of 'ten' do not take this formation.

— e. g.,

tig'isá 'one apiece.'

tigalawá 'two apiece.'

tigatló 'three apiece.'

tig'ápat 'four apiece.'

tiglilimá 'five apiece.'

tigsasangpówò 'ten apiece.'

tiglalabí-ng isá 'eleven apiece.'

The third and fourth have also the reduplicated forms *tigatigatló*, *tigatigápat*.

The forms from 'five' upwards are sometimes used without reduplication, e. g., *tiglimá*, *tiglalt-ng isá*, etc.

In this series 'ten' may be, and the powers of 'ten' are always, expressed by the cardinal with prefixed *man* (cf. § 153), e. g.,

mamólò¹ 'ten apiece.'

mandáan	}	'one hundred apiece.'
manáan		

manlíbo 'one thousand apiece'.

manlaksâ 'ten thousand apiece'.

manyútà 'a hundred thousand apiece'.

From *ilán* 'how many?' are made *tig'ilán*, *tig'iilán* 'how many apiece?' both with and without reduplication.

These numerals may be employed both as pronouns and adjectives.

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

§ 40. The numeral adverbs denoting 'so many times,' are, with the exception of the first, made by prefixing *maka* to the cardinals; the second, and usually the third and fourth are irregular; from the fifth upward, the first syllable of the cardinal may be reduplicated, the *sang* of 'ten' and its powers in this case being omitted.—e. g.,

minsán 'once.'

makalawá 'twice.'

makaitló	}	'three times.'
makatatló		

¹ This example, based on the dialectic form *pólò*, is taken from Totanes (cf. Bibliography).

makaípat	}	'four times.'
makaápat		
makalimá	}	'five times.'
makalilimá		
makasangpówò	}	'ten times.'
makapopówò		
makalabí-ng isá	}	'eleven times.'
makalalabí-ng isá		
makadalawá-ng pówò	}	'twenty times.'
makadaralawá-ng pówò		
makasangdáan	}	'one hundred times.'
makararáan		
makailán 'how many times, how often?'		

When these numerals refer to the past the initial *m* may be changed to *n*, e. g., *ninsán*, *nakalawá*, etc.

The unreduplicated forms with initial *m* are those in common use.

In some mountainous districts *maki* and *naki* are used for *maka* and *naka*.

Béses (Sp. *veces*) 'times' modified by the cardinals is sometimes used instead of the adverbs, e. g.,

tatló-ng béses 'three times.'

iláng béses 'how many times?'

§ 41. By prefixing *ka* to these numerals, from the second upward, the third and fourth being somewhat irregularly made, are formed a series of numerals indicating 'so many days ago'; *sang* is omitted with the tenth.—e. g.,

kamakalawá 'day before yesterday.'

kamakatló 'three days ago.'

kamakápat 'four days ago.'

kamakalimá 'five days ago.'

kamakapówò 'ten days ago.'

kamakailán 'formerly, in days gone by.'

These are used either as adverbs, or as adjectives with *áraw* 'day' in adverbial expressions (cf. § 116).

RESTRICTIVE NUMERALS.

§ 42. By reduplicating the first syllable of the cardinals, distributives with prefixed *tig* and *man*, and numeral adverbs, numerals are formed which have the added meaning of 'only so many,' e. g.,

iisá 'only one.'

titig'isá 'only one apiece.'

miminsán 'only once.'

dadalawá 'only two.'

titigalawá 'only two apiece.'

mamakalawá 'only twice.'

sasangdáan 'only a hundred.'

mamanáan 'only one hundred apiece.'

mamakasangdáan 'only a hundred times.'

iilán } 'just how many?'
 } 'some few.'

titig'ilán 'just how many apiece?'

mamakailán 'just how many times?'

The restrictive meaning is still further enhanced by combining full with the partial reduplication, e. g.,

iisaisá 'only one.'

dadaladalawá 'only two.'

miminsanmínsán 'only once.'

These restrictive numerals have the same constructions as the unduplicated forms.

The names of pieces of money except *salapi* 'four reals' have the same reduplication, e. g.,

pipíso }
pipisopíso } 'only one peso.'

sasaikawaló 'only half a real.'

tatatlotatló-ng bahági 'only three reals.'

ANCIENT SYSTEM OF NUMERATION.

§ 43. The intermediate numbers from twenty-one upward were formerly made in a way much more cumbersome than

the one described in the preceding paragraphs. The numbers between the tens were represented by the intermediate unit, preceded by a combination of the prefix *ma* + the ordinal of the ten (with *pówò* omitted wherever it occurs) towards which the count was proceeding. The initial *i* of the ordinal and the *a* of the prefix formed the diphthong *ay*. The two words were joined by the ligature when the compound with *mayka* ended in a vowel, and sometimes when it ended in a consonant. — e. g.

maykatló-ng isá 'twenty-one.'
 maykatló-ng siyám 'twenty-nine.'
 maykápat dalawá 'thirty-two.'
 maykadáan tatló 'ninety-three.'

In the same way were represented the numbers intermediate between the even hundreds, thousands, ten thousands, etc., except those intermediate between the first and second hundred, first and second thousand, etc., e. g.,

maykatló-ng dáan isá 'two hundred and one.'
 maykápat na ráan sangpówò 'three hundred and ten.'
 maykatló-ng libó-ng labí-ng isá 'two thousand and eleven.'
 máykatló-ng libó-ng tatló-ng dáan 'two thousand, three hundred.'
 maykalimá-ng yúta-ng limá-ng pówò 'four hundred thousand and fifty.'

The numbers intermediate between the first and second hundred, the first and second thousand, and so on with all the powers of 'ten,' were formed in a way similar to the teens, the numbers between the first and second tens. The hundred, thousand, etc., from which the count was proceeding, preceded by *labí sa* 'more than, over' was placed before the intermediate amount, and joined to it by the ligature except in the case of *labí sa ráan*, e. g.,

labí sa ráan isá 'one hundred and one.'
 labí sa ráan labí-ng dalawá 'one hundred and twelve.'
 labí sa ráan dalawá-ng pówò 'one hundred, and twenty.'
 labí sa libó-ng tatló-ng dáan 'one thousand three hundred.'
 labí sa yúta-ng tatló 'one hundred thousand and three.'

The intermediate amount after *labí sa ráan*, etc. might be itself an intermediate numeral beginning with *mayka*-, e. g.,

labí sa ráan maykatló-ng isá 'one hundred and twenty one.'

To indicate that the number in question was more than the ten, hundred, etc., from which the count proceeded without specifying the intermediate amount, the tens, hundreds, etc., with *labí sa* and *mayka* were used without following intermediate unit: here *pówò* was retained in the tens, with *mayka*; *labí sa* stood only before 'ten' and its powers; at the present time *labí sa* is used before all the cardinals (cf. § 34). — e. g.,

labí sa pówò 'over ten.'

maykatló-ng pówò 'over twenty.'

maykaráan 'over ninety.'

labí sa ráan 'over a hundred.'

labí sa ráan maykatló-ng pówò 'over a hundred and twenty.'

maykápat na dáan 'over three hundred.'

§ 44. The ordinals, fractions, distributives, adverbs, and restrictives corresponding to the intermediate numerals beginning with *labí* were formed according to rule, e. g.,

ikalabí sa dáan isá, 'one hundred and first.'

saikalabí sa dáan isá ' $\frac{1}{101}$.'

labilabí sa dáan isá 'one hundred and one at a time.'

makalalabí sa dáan isá 'one hundred and one times.'

Those derived from the numerals beginning with *mayka* offer a number of peculiarities. The cardinals may be used without change as ordinals, or *ika* may be substituted for *mayka* or prefixed to it, e. g.,

maykatló-ng isá	}	'twenty-first.'
ikatló-ng isá		
ikamaykatló-ng isá		

These ordinals may be used as fractions with or without prefixed *sa*, e. g.,

maykatló-ng isá	}	' $\frac{1}{21}$.'
samaykatló-ng isá		

The distributives meaning 'so many at a time' were formed by reduplicating the two syllables following *may*, e. g.,

maykatlokatló-ng isá 'twenty one at a time.'

No distributives with prefixed *tig* were formed.

The adverbs were formed regularly, e. g.,

makamaykatló-ng isá 'twenty one times.'

The restrictive numerals were made from the cardinal by partial or combined partial and full reduplication of the syllables following *may*, e. g.,

maykakatló-ng isá	} 'only twenty-one.'
maykakatlokatló-ng isá	

NOUNS.

§ 45. Nouns may consist of the uncombined root, e. g.,

táwo 'man.'

ólo 'head.'

bátà 'boy.'

áso 'dog.'

amá 'father.'

báhay 'house.'

of reduplicated forms of a root, e. g.,

laláki 'man' (lakí 'grow').

babáyi 'woman' (báyi).

mulamulâ 'the very beginning.'

or may be derived, formed from the simple or reduplicated root by combination with derivative particles, e. g.,

inúm-in 'drink' (inúm).

pala-anító 'idolater' (anító).

ka-banál-an 'goodness' (banál).

lalakí-nin 'virago.'

For a systematic treatment of derivative nouns cf. §§ 140—162.

§ 46. The plural of a common noun is formed by placing the particle *manǵá* before it. The cases of a definite noun, both in singular and plural, are indicated by the forms of the definite article placed before it.—e. g.,

<i>Sg.</i>	<i>Pl.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> ang táwo	ang mangǎ táwo
<i>Gen.</i> nang táwo	nang mangǎ táwo
<i>Obl.</i> sa táwo	sa mangǎ táwo

An indefinite noun in the nominative is without article except when one individual is to be specified, in which case *isá* or *ang isá* is used before it; the genitive is indicated by *nang*, or, when one individual is to be specified, by *nang isá* before the noun; the oblique case, by *sa* or *sa isá* as in the genitive. *Isá* and its noun are joined by the ligature; *ang isá* is used only when the nominative is the subject of a sentence. The declension of the indefinite noun is therefore,

<i>Sg.</i>	<i>Sg.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> táwo	(ang) isá-ng táwo
<i>Gen.</i> nang táwo	nang isá-ng táwo
<i>Obl.</i> sa táwo	sa isá-ng táwo

<i>Pl.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> mangǎ táwo
<i>Gen.</i> nang mangǎ táwo
<i>Obl.</i> sa mangǎ táwo

In many cases an indefinite noun depending on or modifying a preceding word has the form of a nominative, and for the sake of convenience will be spoken of as an indefinite dependent nominative, though, of course, it is not nominative in meaning, being rather akin to the genitive (cf. §§ 174, 185, 210, 229, 230, 244, 246, 265).

When a noun is modified by a preceding demonstrative pronoun, the article is usually not employed, and the case is indicated by the demonstrative, cf. § 165.

§ 47. The cases of names of persons are indicated by the personal or inclusive articles. The plural of such names may be formed by prefixing the definite article with *mangǎ* as in common nouns, or by a circumlocution (cf. § 348).—e. g.,

<i>Sg.</i>	<i>Pl.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> si Pédro 'Pedro.'	ang mangǎ Pédro 'Pédros.'
<i>Gen.</i> ni Pédro	nang mangǎ Pédro
<i>Obl.</i> kay Pédro	sa mangǎ Pédro

Incl.

Nom. siná Pédro 'P. and his companions.'

Gen. niná Pédro

Obl. kaná Pédro

In the abbreviated pet names from names of persons, the last two syllables are usually preserved and *y* is added to the final vowel, e. g.,

Íkoy *from* Frederico.

Títay *from* Margarita.

§ 48. Other proper nouns, names of places, etc., are treated as common nouns and have the definite article, e. g.,

Nom. ang Maynìlà 'Manila.'

Gen. nang Maynìlà

Obl. sa Maynìlà

§ 49. In the vocative, nouns are used without article, and are frequently preceded by the particles *ay*, *oy*, e. g.,

ay, oy táwo 'O man.'

ay, oy Pédro 'O Pedro.'

ay, oy María 'O Maria.'

mangá laláki 'O men.'

§ 50. There is no distinction of form in nouns to denote gender. The sex of a noun of common gender is often determined by the context, but it may be explicitly indicated by the words *laláki* 'man, male,' *babáyi* 'woman, female,' placed after the noun and joined to it by the ligature, e. g.,

kapatíd na laláki 'brother.'

kapatíd na babáyi 'sister.'

púsa-ng laláki 'tom-cat.'

kabáyo-ng babáyi 'mare.'

§ 51. In nouns consisting of a reduplicated root, the reduplication is often non-significant, i. e., has no special meaning, e. g.,

laláki 'man.'

bulaklák 'flower.'

Certain nouns take full reduplication to denote an intensive or a distributive idea, e. g.,

mulamulâ 'the very beginning.'
 tawotáwo 'each man.'
 araw'áraw 'every day.'
 buwanbuwán 'every month.'
 bagaybágay 'thinks of different sorts.'

Certain names of pieces of money take restrictive reduplication like the restrictive numerals (cf. § 42).

Certain nouns have partial reduplication after *sa* with a special meaning (cf. § 347).

DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

§ 52. Descriptive adjectives sometimes consist of unchanged roots, e. g.,

hungháng 'stupid.'
 ó'ol 'mad.'
 mahál 'noble.'
 bágo 'new.'

but usually they are formed by prefixing the particle *ma* to the root (for other derivative adjectives not expressing degree (cf. §§ 142, 143, 145, 146, 147, 149, 151, 157), e. g.,

ma-galíng 'good.'
 ma-gandá 'beautiful.'
 ma-lakás 'strong.'
 ma-itím 'black.'

§ 53. The plural of the *ma* adjectives may be formed with *manǵá*, or by reduplicating the first syllable of the root, or by both means combined, e. g.,

manǵá magalíng
 magagalíng
 manǵá magagalíng.

The plural of root adjectives and other derivative adjectives except adjectives of equality (cf. § 57), is formed as in the case of the noun by means of *manǵá*, e. g.,

manǵá hungháng, etc.

Muntî, 'small' makes an intensive form, which is usually employed as a plural, by reduplicating the first syllable of the word, viz., *mumuntî* (cf. § 32).

§ 54. The comparative degree is expressed by the positive, or by the positive preceded by *lâlò* or *lâlò pa*, or followed by *pa*; *lâlò* and *lâlò pa* take the ligature.—e. g.,

magalíng	}	'better.'
lâlò-ng magalíng		
lâlò pa-ng magalíng		
magalíng pa		

A comparative degree of inferiority may be formed by the positive preceded by *pasubáli* 'less,' the two being joined by the ligature, e. g.,

pasubáli-ng magalíng 'less good, not so good.'

§ 55. The relative superlative is expressed by the comparative with the definite article, e. g.,

ang magalíng	}	'the best;'
ang lâlò-ng magalíng		
etc.		

or by a nominal form made with prefixed *ka* and suffixed *an* on the basis of the fully reduplicated root (cf. § 150, d) preceded by the article, e. g.,

ang kagalinggalíngan 'the best.'

§ 56. The absolute superlative, which indicates a high degree of the quality without specific comparison, is expressed in several ways.

a) The adjectives are modified by the adverbs *lubhá*, *masákit*, *totóo*, *dî sapála*, *dî hámak*, *dî palák* 'very': the compounds with *dî* always follow, the others may stand either before or after the adjective, adjective and adverb being joined by the ligature.—e. g.,

lubhá-ng magalíng	}	'very good.'
magalíng na lubhá		
magandá-ng dî sapála		

'very handsome.'

b) The descriptive adjective is repeated, the two being joined by the ligature, e. g.,

magalíng na magalíng 'very good.'

The plural of this superlative may be formed by placing *manǵá* before the combination of the two adjectives, or by reduplicating the first syllable of the root in each, e. g.,

manǵá magalíng na magalíng

magagalíng na magagalíng.

c) The nominal form with prefixed *ka* and suffixed *an* described above (§ 55) is employed.

§ 57. Adjectives of equality which contain the idea of 'as, equally as' are formed from the root with the prefixes *ka*, *magka*, *sing*, *kasing*, *magkasing*, or by substituting these prefixes for *ma* (cf. §§ 149, e; 152), e. g.,

kalakí	}	'as large, equally as large.'
magkalakí		
singlakí		
kasinglakí		
magkasinglakí		

The forms with *mag* are used only of more than one. If more than two individuals are compared, the *sing* adjectives with the first syllable of the root reduplicated, or the *magka* or *magkasing* adjectives with reduplicated *ka* may be employed, e. g.,

singlalakí	}	'equally large.'
magkakalakí		
magkakasinglakí		

QUASI-VERBS.

§ 58. Certain important verbal ideas are expressed by independent particles, which may be called quasi-verbs. These particles are, viz.,

ay 'to be.'

na 'to be.'

may 'to have, be.'

walâ 'not to have, not to be.'

a—'to say.'

Na may insert an *n*, taking the form *nan* before adverbs beginning with *d*, e. g., *nandito* 'be there' (cf. § 224). *Walâ* makes the superlative form *walâ-ng walâ* (cf. § 56, b).

VERBS.

VERBAL PARTICLES IN GENERAL.

§ 59. The use of the simple root as a verb is comparatively rare except in colloquial speech (cf. § 411). Verbs are regularly formed by combining various particles with the root. These particles may be classified as follows, viz.,

A. Principal { Active
 { Passive { Special
 Essential

B. Subsidiary { Primary
 { Secondary

The principal particles are employed to form the ordinary finite verb, the subsidiary make certain special verbal forms.

VERBS MADE WITH PRINCIPAL PARTICLES.

The Verbal Forms in General.

§ 60. Verbs made with the principal particles are divided into seventeen classes according to the active particle, and these classes fall into five groups, as follows, viz.:

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
a	um	mag	man	ma	pa
b		magsi	manhi	maka	magpa
c		magsa			magpaka
d		magka			
e		maki			
f		magin(g)			
g		magkan			
h		magkapa			
i		magpati			

These classes denote in general the following, viz.:

- I, II a — action.
- II b — plurality of agents.
- II c — 'be like something.'
- II d — 'have something.'
- II e — action in company with someone.
- II f — 'become something.'
- II g — involuntary action.
- II h — 'remain, be in a certain position.'
- II i — 'put oneself suddenly in a certain position.'
- III a — frequentative action.
- III b — 'search out and clean from.'
- IV a — state or condition.
- IV b — 1) causative action (*maka* causative).
2) ability, 'be able' (*maka* potential).
- V a — 1) 'let, order to be done to or for oneself.'
2) motion.
- V b — 'let, order, cause someone or something.'
- V c — voluntary action.

§ 61. All of these classes with the exception of I, have a special passive particle which is used instead of the active particle when the verb is passive. The special passive particles are, viz.:

	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
a	— pag		pan	ka, ma, maka	pa
b		pagsi	panhi, hi	ka, ma	pa, pagpa
c		pagsa, sa			paka, pagpaka
d		pagka			
e		paki			
f		pagin(g)			
g		pagkan			
h		pagkapa			
i		pagpati			

In II (except sometimes in c) and III a, the passive particles are formed¹ by changing the initial *m* of the active to *p*, and

¹ The rules given here and in the following paragraphs for the formation of the various verbal forms are empirical, and do not represent the way in which the forms developed historically.

this rule applies also usually in **III b** and in certain cases in **V b, c**; **V a** and sometimes **IV a** have the same particle in active and passive: in **II c**, **III b**, and **V b, c**, the special passive particles are sometimes formed by dropping the *mag* or *man* of the active particle.

§ 62. The passive stems formed by the combination of these special passive particles with the root, must, with the exception of certain forms of **IV** with the particle *ma* or *maka*, be still further combined with the essential passive particles in order to form passive verbs. In **I** the essential passive particles are applied to the root, which is used as passive stem. The essential passive particles are four in number, viz., the prefix-suffix *i* and the suffixes *in* and *an*, which make different kinds of passive; the prefix-infix *in*, which is used in the preterite and present tenses of all three kinds of passives: *i* is always a prefix except in the impersonal imperative (cf. § 80). The combination of the first three essential particles with the passive stems will be spoken of as the *in*, *i* and *an* passive themes. Examples of these passive themes in the *mag* class are *pag-larô-in*, *i-pag-larô*,¹ *pag-larô-an* from the passive stem *pag-larô* of *larô* 'play.'

§ 63. Every active stem and every passive theme distinguishes four mode and tense forms which will be called tense stems, viz.,

- a) modal (subjunctive, imperative, infinitive),
- b) future,
- c) preterite,
- d) present.

The active modal form is identical with the active verbal stem, the passive modal forms, with the passive themes, e. g., *mag-larô* is both active verbal stem and modal, *pag-larô-in*, both passive theme and modal of the *in* passive, etc.

The preterite active, except in Groups **I** and **V a**, is formed by changing the *m* of the modal to *n*, e. g., *nag-larô*.

The preterite passive except in Group **IV** with special particle *ma*, *maka* is made by combining the passive stem of the *in* passive, and the passive themes of the *i* and *an* passives

with the infix-prefix *in*. This is prefixed to roots with initial vowel, but inserted after an initial root consonant or the first consonant of a special passive particle, e. g., *in-áral* from *áral* 'teach,' *s-in-úlat* from *súlat* 'write,' *p-in-ag-larô* from passive stem *pag-larô*, *i-p-in-ag-larô* and *p-in-ag-larô-an* from the passive themes *i-pag-larô*, *pag-larô-an*.

Except in Group I, the future and present of both voices are formed from the modal and preterite respectively by partial reduplication; in general the root is reduplicated when the active or special passive particle is monosyllabic, some syllable of the particle itself, when the particle is of more than one syllable: e. g., *mag-la-larô*, *nag-la-larô*, *pag-la-larô-in*, *i-p-in-ag-la-larô*; *magsi-si-alis*, *nagsi-si-alis*, *p-in-agsi-si-alis-an* from *magsi-alis* 'go away (of many).'

All tense stems are invariable for person, gender, and number.

Groups of Verbs.

Group I.

§ 64. In the active, roots with initial consonant form their modal by inserting the particle *um* in the first syllable of the root; the future, by the reduplication of the initial syllable of the root; the preterite and the present, by inserting *um* in the first syllable of the simple and partially reduplicated roots respectively, the preterite being thus identical with the modal. In roots with initial vowel the syllable *um* is prefixed instead of infixed. No root with initial *m* is verbalized in this class. —e. g.,

<i>Root.</i>	<i>súlat</i> 'write.'	<i>íbig</i> 'wish.'
<i>Mod.</i>	<i>sumúlat</i>	<i>umíbig</i>
<i>Fut.</i>	<i>susúlat</i>	<i>iíbig</i>
<i>Pret.</i>	<i>sumúlat</i>	<i>umíbig</i>
<i>Pres.</i>	<i>sumusúlat</i>	<i>umíbig</i> .

Instead of *um* in preterite and present *ungm* may be used, e. g., *sungmúlat*, *sungmusúlat*, *ungmíbig*, *ungmitbig*.

§ 65. The three passive themes are made from the simple root, no special passive particle being used.

In the *in* theme the modal is formed by suffixing *in* to the root; the future, by suffixing *in* to the partially reduplicated root: the preterite and present are made from the simple and partially reduplicated roots respectively, by inserting *in* in the first syllable, if the initial is a consonant; and by prefixing *in*, if it is a vowel.—e. g.,

<i>Root.</i>	súlat 'write.'	áral 'teach.'
<i>Mod.</i>	sulátin	arálin
<i>Fut.</i>	susulátin	aarálin
<i>Pret.</i>	sinúlat	ináral
<i>Pres.</i>	sinusúlat	inaáral.

In the *i* theme the modal and future are formed by prefixing *i* to the simple and partially reduplicated roots respectively. Roots with initial consonant in general make their preterite and present by prefixing *i* to the corresponding tense stems of the *in* passive; roots with initial vowel form their preterite and present by prefixing *ini* or *ina* to the simple and partially reduplicated roots respectively.—e. g.,

<i>Root.</i>	súlat	áral
<i>Mod.</i>	isúlat	iáral
<i>Fut.</i>	isusúlat	iaáral
<i>Pret.</i>	isinúlat	iniáral, inaáral
<i>Pres.</i>	isinusúlat	iniaáral, inaaáral.

In the *an* theme the modal and future are formed by suffixing *an* to the simple and partially reduplicated roots respectively; the preterite and present by suffixing *an* to the corresponding tense stems of the *in* passive.—e. g.,

<i>Root.</i>	súlat	áral
<i>Mod.</i>	sulátan	arálan
<i>Fut.</i>	susulátan	aarálan
<i>Pret.</i>	sinulátan	inarálan
<i>Pres.</i>	sinusulátan	inaarálan.

in a aralan

Group II.

§ 66. In the active the modal is formed by prefixing the various active particles to the root, the future, by reduplicating one syllable of the modal; the first syllable of the root when the particle is monosyllabic, the second syllable of the particle when the particle is dissyllabic, and the syllable *pa* of the particle, when the particle is trisyllabic. The preterite and present are formed from the modal and future respectively by changing the initial *m* to *n*. The passive tense stems are made from the corresponding active forms by changing *m* or *n* of the active to *p*, and applying the essential passive particles as in Group I, the infix *in* being inserted after the first consonant of the special passive particle, and *i* being prefixed to it. When the particle ends in a consonant, as in the case of *mag*, *magin(g)*, *magkan*, this consonant does not unite with the initial vowel of a root to form one syllable, the syllable division falling between the two. As examples of the inflection of this group will serve *maglarô* 'play,' *mag'ísip* 'think,' *magsialís* 'go away (of many),' viz.:

Active.

<i>Mod.</i>	maglarô	mag'ísip	magsialís
<i>Fut.</i>	maglalarô	mag'iísip	magsisialís
<i>Pret.</i>	naglarô	nag'ísip	nagsialís
<i>Pres.</i>	naglalarô	nag'iísip	nagsisialís

IN Passive.

<i>Mod.</i>	paglaróin	pag'ísipin	pagsialísin
<i>Fut.</i>	paglalaróin	etc.	pagsisialísin
<i>Pret.</i>	pinaglarô		pinagsialís
<i>Pres.</i>	pinaglalarô		pinagsisialís

I Passive.

<i>Mod.</i>	ipaglarô	ipag'ísip	ipagsialís
<i>Fut.</i>	ipaglalarô	etc.	ipagsisialís
<i>Pret.</i>	ipinaglarô		ipinagsialís
<i>Pres.</i>	ipinaglalarô		ipinagsisialís

1-p-m-ag l a l a r o ?

AN Passive.

<i>Mod.</i>	paglaróan	pag'isípan	pagsialísan
<i>Fut.</i>	paglalaróan	etc.	pagsisialísan
<i>Pret.</i>	pinaglaróan		pinagsialísan
<i>Pres.</i>	pinaglalaróan		pinagsisialísan

§ 67. Many verbs of the *mag* class have no special particle in the passive, their forms thus being identical with those of the *um* class. Such forms are especially frequent in the *in* passive, e. g.,

isipin *from* mag'isip 'think.'
 itaním *from* magtaním 'sow.'
 lagyán (§ 81) *from* maglagáy 'put.'

Like *magsialis* are conjugated in general the *magsa* (except in the *in* passive), *magka*, *maki*, *magin(g)* and *magkan* classes.

The *in* passive of the *magsa* class is made with the special particle *sa* as follows, e. g.,

Mod. sakastiláin 'be like a Spaniard.'
Fut. sasakastiláin
Pret. sinakastilà
Pres. sinasakastilà

The present and future of some verbs of the *magka* class are made by reduplicating the first syllable of the root instead of *ka*, e. g.,

Pres. nagkasisiya }
Fut. magkasisiya } 'come to terms.'

In the *magin(g)* and *magkan* classes, according to the regular rule, the final consonant of the particle is not repeated in the reduplicated forms; the particle *magin(g)* may end either in *n* or *ng*, viz., *magin* or *maging*; in the *magkan* class the root is always partially reduplicated in all tense stems.—e. g.,

Mod. { magin } — banál 'become righteous.'
 { maging }
Fut. { magigin } — banál
 { magiging }
 etc.

<i>Mod.</i> magkanlulúhà	} 'weep uncontrollably.'
<i>Fut.</i> magkakanlulúhà	
etc.	

The two classes with trisyllabic particle, viz., *magkapa* and *magpati*, differ from the paradigm of *magsialis* only in the forms with reduplication, in which the syllable *pa* of the particle is always the repeated element, e. g., *magkapanġisi* 'show the teeth' and *magpatiluhód* 'fall on the knees' make the future active *magkapapanġisi*, *magpapatiluhód*, etc.

The *mag*, *magsi* and *magsa* classes may have all three kinds of passive, the other classes make only the *i* and *an* passives.

Group III.

§ 68. The conjugation of verbs of this group follows in general the same rules as that of verbs of the preceding group. The prefix is here regarded as having been originally *man*, tho as stated above in § 9, it is also possible to regard the final consonant of the particle in all its forms as *ng*.

In some verbs of the *man* class the special verbal particle is prefixed to the root without change, e. g., *manlibák* 'scoff,' *mangáling* 'come from.' Certain roots with initial *h* and *y* take the prefix in the form *mang*, e. g., *manghúli* 'live by rapine,' *mangyári* 'be able.' Both these kinds of verbs are conjugated exactly like verbs of the *mag* class, e. g.,

Active.

Passive.

<i>Mod.</i> manlibák	panlibákin	ipanlibák	panlibákan
<i>Fut.</i> manlilibák	panlilibákin	ipanlilibák	panlilibákan
<i>Pret.</i> nanlibák	pinanlibák	ipinanlibák	pinanlibákan
<i>Pres.</i> nanlilibák	pinanlilibák	ipinanlilibák	pinanlilibákan

Similarly *mangyári*, *mangyayári*, etc.

In the majority of cases, however, the *n* of the particle *man* (*nan*, *pan*) is combined with the initial of the root according to § 9, *nb*, *np* becoming *m*; *ns*, *nt* and sometimes *nd* becoming *n*; *nk* and sometimes *nh* becoming *nġ*. Roots with initial vowel take the particle in the form *mangġ*, the *nġ* of which forms part of the following syllable. In these verbs, in tense stems with reduplication, the syllable following the *ma*, *na* or *pa* of the particle is repeated; otherwise they follow exactly the verbs of

the *mag* class,—e. g., from the roots *bigáy* 'give,' *sumpâ* 'curse,' *kúha* 'take,' *isdâ* 'fish': —

Active.

<i>Mod.</i>	mamigáy	manumpâ	manǵúha	manǵisdâ
<i>Fut.</i>	mamimigáy	manunumpâ	manǵunǵúha	manǵinǵisdâ
<i>Pret.</i>	namigáy	nanumpâ	nanǵúha	nanǵisdâ
<i>Pres.</i>	namimigáy	nanunumpâ	nanǵunǵúha	nanǵinǵisdâ

Passive.

<i>Mod.</i>	ipamigáy	panumpaán	panǵúnin (§ 81)
<i>Fut.</i>	ipamimigáy	panunumpaán	panǵunǵúnin
<i>Pret.</i>	ipinamigáy	pinanumpaán	pinanǵúha
<i>Pres.</i>	ipinamimigáy	pinanunumpaán	pinanǵunǵúha

§ 69. In verbs of the *manhi* class the initial consonant of the root is modified as in the *man* class, just as if the particle were *manhin* (or *manhing*), e. g.,

manhimálay (pálay) 'glean.'
 manhiningâ (tingâ) 'clean teeth.'
 manhingókó (kokó) 'cut the nails.'

The special passive particle in the *in* and *an* passives may be *hi* instead of *panhi*. The conjugation of verbs of this class follows the norm of the *magsi* class except in passive forms with special particle *hi*: in these forms *hi* is the syllable re-duplicated in future and present; the infix *in* is inserted in this particle just as in any other special passive particle.—e. g.,

Active.

<i>Mod.</i>	manhimálay
<i>Fut.</i>	manhihimálay
<i>Pret.</i>	nanhimálay
<i>Pres.</i>	nanhihimálay

Passive.

<i>Mod.</i>	panhimaláyin	or	himaláyin
<i>Fut.</i>	panhihimaláyin		hihimaláyin
<i>Pret.</i>	pinanhimálay		hinimálay
<i>Pres.</i>	pinanhihimálay		hinihimálay

Mod. ipanhimálay
 etc.

Mod. panhimaláyan or himaláyan
 etc. etc.

Group IV.

§ 70. All verbs of this group follow in the active the norm of the *mag* class, reduplicating the first syllable of the root in future and present. *Maka* forms causative verbs from roots denoting state, potential verbs from roots of action.—e. g.,

<i>Mod.</i>	matúwà	makatákot 'cause	makalálakad 'be
		'rejoice.' fear.'	able to walk.'
<i>Fut.</i>	matutáwà	makatatákot	makalalálakad
<i>Pret.</i>	natúwà	nakatákot	nakalálakad
<i>Pres.</i>	natutúwà	nakatatákot	nakalalálakad

In some districts *ka* is repeated in the reduplicated forms of the *maka* class, instead of the first syllable of the root, e. g., *makakatákot*, *makakalálakad*, etc.

Certain potential verbs of the *maka* class have a separate accent on the second syllable of the verbal particle, viz. *maká-*, *naká* (cf. § 398, d).

§ 71. Verbs of this group which make their passives with the special particle *ka*, i. e., most verbs of the *ma* class, and verbs with *maka* causative, follow the norm of the *mag* class; *ma* verbs make only the *an* passive, *maka* causative verbs, only the *i* passive; this *i* passive, may also be considered as derived from the *ma* class.—e. g., from *matáy* 'die,' *tákot* 'fear':—

<i>Mod.</i>	kamatáyan	ikatákot
<i>Fut.</i>	kamamatáyan	ikatatákot
<i>Pret.</i>	kinamatáyan	ikinatákot
<i>Pres.</i>	kinamamatáyan	ikinatatákot

§ 72. Verbs which make their passives with *ma*, i. e., some verbs of the *ma* class and verbs with *maka* potential, omit the essential particle *in* wherever it would occur either as suffix or infix; the essential particle *i* is inserted between the particle and the root. The future is made from the modal by reduplicating the first syllable of the root; the preterite and present are formed from the modal and future respectively by changing initial *m* to *n* just as in the active. Verbs of the *ma* class with the special particle *maka* in the passive are conjugated like verbs with *ma*, except that *ka*, and not the first syllable of the root, is reduplicated in future and present. Verbs of the

ma class make only the *an* passive, verbs of the *maka* potential class, all three passives, e. g., from *matáy* 'die,' *limot* 'forget,' *kúha* 'take,' *súlat* 'write':—

	<i>Ma.</i>	<i>Maka.</i>
<i>Mod.</i>	mamatayán	makúha
<i>Fut.</i>	mamamatayán	makukúha
<i>Pret.</i>	namatayán	nakúha
<i>Pres.</i>	namamatayán	nakukúha
<i>Mod.</i>	makalimótan	maisúlat
<i>Fut.</i>	makakalimótan	maisusúlat
<i>Pret.</i>	nakalimótan	naisúlat
<i>Pres.</i>	nakakalimótan	naisusúlat
<i>Mod.</i>		masulátan
<i>Fut.</i>		masusulátan
<i>Pret.</i>		nasulátan
<i>Pres.</i>		nasusulátan

Certain verbs of the *maka* class have here as in the active (cf. § 70) a separate accent on the verbal particle, viz., *má-*, *ná* (cf. § 398, d).

Group V.

§ 73. In the active, verbs of the *pa* class form their preterite by prefixing *na* to the modal. The first syllable of the root is reduplicated in future and present, except in verbs of motion, in which *pa* may also be reduplicated; verbs of the *magpa* class follow the norm of the *magsi* class, verbs of the *magpaka* class, that of the *magpati* class, of Group II.—e. g.,

<i>Mod.</i>	patólong 'ask for help.'	parito 'come here.'
<i>Fut.</i>	patotólong	paririto, paparito
<i>Pret.</i>	napatólong	naparito
<i>Pres.</i>	napatotólong	naparirito, napaparito
<i>Mod.</i>	magpasúlat 'have written.'	magpakaísip 'think with special effort.'
<i>Fut.</i>	magpapasúlat	magpapakaisip
<i>Pret.</i>	nagpasúlat	nagpakaisip
<i>Pres.</i>	nagpapasúlat	nagpapakaisip

§ 74. The special passive particle of the *pa* and usually of the *magpa* classes is *pa*, the two classes coinciding in these forms. The conjugation follows the norm of the *mag* class, e. g., from *patólong*:—

<i>Mod.</i>	patolóngin	ipatólong	patolóngan
<i>Fut.</i>	patotolóngin	ipatotólong	patotolóngan
<i>Pret.</i>	pinatólong	ipinatólong	pinatolóngan
<i>Pres.</i>	pinatotólong	ipinatotólong	pinatotolóngan

In the same way from *magpasulat*, are made *pasulátin*, etc.

Verbs of motion of the *pa* class, however, may also have reduplication of the *pa* as in the active; the *in* passive is not formed.— e. g.,

<i>Mod.</i>	iparíto	paritóhan
<i>Pres.</i>	{ ipinariríto { ipinaparíto etc.	{ pinariritóhan { pinaparitóhan etc.

Verbs of the *magpa* class sometimes make their passive with the special particle *pagpa*, particularly when the action of the verb is frequentative; in which case they follow the norm of the *magsi* class.— e. g., from *magpalamig* 'let freeze':—

<i>Mod.</i>	pagpalamigán
<i>Fut.</i>	pagpapalamigán
<i>Pret.</i>	pinagpalamigán
<i>Pres.</i>	pinagpapalamigán etc.

Verbs of the *magpaka* class have in the passive the special particles *pagpaka* or *paka*, *pagpaka* being regularly used with verbs which have an intensive or frequentative meaning. Passives made with *pagpaka* follow the norm of the *magpati* class, those made with *paka*, the norm of the *mag* class. Only the *i* and *an* passives are formed.— e. g., from *magpakabúti* 'beautify oneself,' *magpakatandá* 'pay attention to':—

<i>Mod.</i>	ipagpakabúti	pakatandáan
<i>Fut.</i>	ipagpapakabúti	pakatatandáan
<i>Pret.</i>	ipinagpakabúti	pinakatandáan
<i>Pres.</i>	ipinagpapakabúti	pinakatatatandáan

Secondary and Tertiary Derivation.

§ 75. The principal verbal particles of the various classes are often combined in the same verb, the secondary particle, active or passive, being regularly prefixed to the passive stem of the primary verb, except in the following cases, viz.:

- a) verbs made with *mag* and *magka* on the basis of active stems of the first group, e. g.,
 magsumakít 'exert oneself' *from* s-um-akít.
 magdumalí 'hasten' „ d-um-alí.
 magkasumonód 'follow' „ s-um-onód.
- b) verbs made with *maka* potential on the basis of *maka* causative (rare), e. g.,
 maka-maka-ginháwa 'be able to cause alleviation.'
- c) the peculiar form *magpa-um-anlin(anó)* 'be patient' (cf. § 407, 2).

As the passive stem of the first group is identical with the root, verbs made on this basis are primary and not secondary. The first group furnishes the basis for secondary derivation only in the few cases mentioned above.

The principal varieties of secondary derivation upon the basis of the other groups are, viz.:

- a) *Maka* potential with all classes except IV **a, b** (*ma, maka* potential), e. g.,
 maka-pag-larô 'be able to play.'
 maka-pa-rító 'be able to come.'
 maka-pagpa-gawâ 'be able to order to do.'
- b) *Magsi* with all classes except IV **b** (*maka* potential), e. g.,
 magsi-pag-áral 'study (of many).'
 magsi-pang-áral 'preach (of many).'
- c) *Pa* with any class including its own except IV **b** (*maka*) and II **b** (*magsi*), e. g.,
 pa-pag-labás 'have taken out.'
 pa-pa(V **b**)-káin 'ask to give to eat.'
- d) *Magpa* with any class including its own except IV **b** (*maka*) and II **b** (*magsi*), e. g.,
 magpa-pag-áral 'make study.'
 magpa-pa-súlat 'order to order to write.'

- e) *Maki* with II **a** (*mag*), III **a, b** (*man*; *manhi*, *hi* being used as special passive particle), V **a, b** (*pa*, *magpa*), and even with its own class, e. g.,

maki-pag-larô 'play with.'

maki-hi-nakáy (sakáy) 'embark.'

maki-paki-úsap 'join in conversation without being invited.'

- f) *Ma* with II **e** (*maki*), V **a, b, c** (*pa*, *magpa*, *magpaka*), and II **i** (*magpati*), the special passive particle in the last three cases being without *pag*, e. g.,

ma-paki-bilí 'buy by chance.'

ma-pa-ibabâ 'go down, flow down.'

ma-paka-lakí 'grow much.'

ma-pati-hólog 'fall.'

Ma in the preterite of the *an* passive is combined with various classes in the sense of 'get or gain by an action,' e. g.,

na-pag-kanta-hán 'gain by singing.'

na-panulát-an (súlat) 'get by writing.'

na-pagpa-opa-hán 'get, gain by day-labor.'

- g) *Um* with III **b** (*manhi*, with special passive particle *hi*) and V **a** (*pa*), e. g.,

h-um-i-lámos 'wash.'

p-um-a-ríto 'come.'

- h) *Mag* with III **a, b** (*man*; *manhi*, with special passive particle *hi*), and V **a** (*pa*), e. g.,

mag-panúlat (súlat) 'be busied in writing.'

mag-hi-nápang (tápang) 'give courage.'

- i) *Maka* causal, only in the *i* passive instead of any simple *i* passive denoting cause, especially with II **f, i** (*maging*, *magpati*) and V **a** (*pa*), e. g.,

i-ka-pagin(g)-dápat 'become worthy.'

i-ka-pagpati-hólog 'throw oneself forward.'

i-ka-pa-ríto 'come.'

§ 76. The active modal of these secondary verbs is identical with the active stem; the preterite is made according to the rule for the secondary particle. When the secondary particle

is one of those which have reduplication of the particle in the future and present in primary derivation, these tenses are regularly formed in the same way in these secondary verbal forms (i. e., by reduplication of the secondary particle) though sometimes the form has in addition the reduplication of the primary verb; otherwise the reduplication is regularly as in the primary verb, the root or the primary particle being reduplicated; except that the *pa* of **V a** may be reduplicated after a secondary particle instead of the first syllable of the root. In those verbs made with *mag* on the active stem of the first class, however, the stem is treated just like a simple root. In applying the essential passive particles, the whole secondary verbal stem is treated like a verbal stem with only one particle.—
e. g.,

<i>Fut. act.</i>	makikipaglarô	} from maki-paglarô 'play with.'
<i>Pres. act.</i>	nakikipaglarô	
<i>Pres. pass.</i>	pinakikipaglaróan	
<i>Pres. act.</i>	nagsisiparoroón	from magsi-paroón 'go there (of many).'
<i>Fut. act.</i>	magkakasumunód	} from magka-sumunód 'follow.'
<i>Pres. act.</i>	nagkakasumunód	
<i>Pres. pass.</i>	ipinagkakasumunód	
<i>Fut. act.</i>	makapag'aáral	} from maka-pag'áral 'be able to learn.'
<i>Pres. act.</i>	nakapag'aáral	
<i>Fut. act.</i>	makapagpapapanhík	} from maka-pagpapapanhík 'be able to make come up.'
<i>Pres. act.</i>	nakapagpapapanhík	
<i>Pres. pass.</i>	ipinagpapahindî	from mag-pahindî 'say no often.'
<i>Fut. act.</i>	magsusumákit	} from mag-sumákit 'exert oneself.'
<i>Pres. act.</i>	nagsusumákit	

§ 77. Sometimes a secondary verb is combined with an additional particle, forming a tertiary verb, the secondary verbal stem being treated like the primary stem in secondary derivation. The principal tertiary particles are *maka* potential and *magsi*.—
e. g.,

maka-pagsi-pag-alís 'be able to take away (of many).'
magsi-paki-pag-larô 'play together (of many).'

Verbs with Fully Reduplicated Roots.

§ 78. The fully reduplicated root is often used as the basis of verbal derivation in the various classes. In some cases full is combined with partial reduplication (cf. § 83). In verbs made with *man*, the *n* remains unchanged before the initial of the root. Verbs derived from these reduplicated forms have sometimes an emphatic, sometimes a diminutive meaning, sometimes either according as they are pronounced with more or less emphasis.—e. g.,

sumusulatsúlat (*pres.*) 'writes a little.'

magnilaynílay 'meditate profoundly.'

dinaraladalá (*pres.*) 'is carried a little while.'

sulatsulátan 'be place of writing a little.'

manbagyobagyó 'be something like a hurricane.'

nagkasirasirà (*pret.*) 'was destroyed completely.'

When the simple verbal form consists of only two syllables, as in certain irregular verbs of the *um* class (§ 88), and in syncopated passives (§ 81), the corresponding formation is made by repeating the complete verbal form as in full reduplication of a root, e. g.,

mulimúli (úli) 'repeat all the time.'

dalhindhín (dalá) 'carry a little.'

hintinhintín (hintáy) 'wait a little.'

Irregularities and Peculiarities.

In General.

§ 79. Certain roots and passive stems may be used without change as active imperatives, e. g.,

lákad 'go.'

kúha 'take.'

pag'áral 'study.'

pakilarô 'play with others.'

§ 80. Besides the regular modal forms of the three passives, each passive possesses a special imperative form which will be called impersonal, as it is regularly employed without expressed agent. In the *in* passive the *in* is dropped, the root returning to its original form if it is syncopated; in the *i* passive

the prefix *i* is dropped and a suffixed *an* added; in the *an* passive, *i* is substituted for the suffix *an*, the root usually returning to its original form if it is syncopated. These imperatives are made principally from roots, but cf. § 102.—e. g.,

ábut	<i>for</i>	abútin	‘get.’
higít	„	higtín	‘stretch out.’
tapónan	„	itápon	‘throw.’
bukasí	„	buksán	‘open.’
takpí	„	takpán	‘cover.’

§ 81. In a number of verbs the passive forms made with the suffixes *in* and *an* are somewhat irregular.

a) Roots ending in a simple vowel insert an *h* before the suffixes (cf. § 9), e. g.,

aryáhin,	aryáhan	<i>from</i>	aryá	‘defend.’
sabíhin,	sabíhan	„	sábi	‘say.’
takbóhan	„		takbó	‘run.’

b) Many roots, including some which take *h* according to (a), syncopate the vowel of the final syllable before the suffixes according to § 10, e. g.,

gaw’ín,	gaw’án	<i>from</i>	gawâ	‘do.’
salit’ín,	salit’án	„	salitâ	‘talk.’
bigyán	„		bigáy	‘give.’
saktín,	saktán	„	sakit,	‘sick.’
sundín	„		sunód	‘follow.’
bilhín	„		bilí	‘buy.’
dalhán	„		dalá	‘carry, bring.’
lakhán	„		laki	‘grow.’

c) Some roots, besides syncopating the vowel of the final syllable, transpose the last two consonants of the root; the principal roots having this formation are, viz.,

átip	‘thatch,’	aptín,	aptán.
bílin	‘commend, commit,’	binlán.	
habílin	‘deposit,’	habinlán.	
korót	‘pinch,’	kotdín,	kotdán.
silíd	‘put in,’	sidlán.	
taláb	‘penetrate,’	tablán.	
taním	‘sow,’	tamnán.	

d) The following four roots syncopate, besides the vowel of the final syllable, the *h* which precedes it, viz.,

bíhis 'change clothes,'	bisín, bisán.
bóhos 'pour out,'	bosán.
híhip 'blow,'	hipán.
líhis 'lose the way, err,'	lisán.

e) The following are still more irregular, viz.,

ayáw 'not to want,'	aywán ayúan, íwan.
bihása 'accustom oneself,'	bisanhín, bisanhán.
dating 'arrive,'	datnín, datnán.
halík 'kiss,'	hagkín, hagkán.
halíli 'substitute,'	halinhín, halinlín, halinhán.
kilála 'know,'	kilanlín.
kúha 'take,'	kúnin, kúnan.
liríp 'take soundings,'	ligdín, ligdán.
sála 'be deficient,'	sanlán.

The abbreviation *syn.* will be used with a form to denote that it is a syncopated passive; i. e., that it belongs to one of the above groups from (b) to (e).

The uncontracted forms of these passives are also sometimes used, especially when the root has a verbal particle prefixed, e. g.,

pa-káinín 'give to eat' *from* káin (*syn.* kánin) 'eat.'
 pa-halíkin 'allow to kiss' *from* halík (*syn.* hagkán) 'kiss.'
 pagka-sakítan 'labor excessively' *from* sakít (*syn.* saktán)
 'sickness, pain, work.'

§ 82. The *i* passive denoting cause may be made in any class by *ika* instead of simple *i* (cf. § 75).

§ 83. Special emphatic or frequentative forms are made in many classes by reduplicating an additional syllable of the root in all tense forms, by shifting the accent from penult to ultima, or by both means combined. The simple verbs corresponding to *mag* verbs of this kind are of the *um* class.—e. g.,

magbibilí (*mod.*) 'buy much' (bumilí 'buy').
 nagbibibilí (*pres.*) 'buys much.'
 mag'arál (*mod.*) 'teach much' (umáral 'teach').
 nahahahápis (*pres.*) 'is very sad.'

kinaiibígan (*pass. pres. of ma class.*) 'is being loved.'
 makagigiginháwa (*fut.*) 'will greatly benefit.'
 magkakagotóm (*mod.*) 'prevail [of famine],' (gótóm
 'hunger').

Sometimes the fully reduplicated forms in § 78, take this partial reduplication in addition, e. g.,
 magkasisirasírà 'be utterly destroyed.'

Um class.

§ 84. In roots with *i* in the first syllable, the *u* of the particle *um* may be assimilated to the following *i*, giving *im* (cf. § 6), e. g.,

luminaw, liminaw *from* línaw 'clear.'
 uminúm, iminúm „ inúm 'drink.'

§ 85. Instead of the regular present forms like *sumusúlat* or *sungmusúlat*, forms like *nasúlat*, consisting of the root with prefixed *na*, may be used.

§ 86. The *i* passive of roots with initial *h*, *l* and *w*, though sometimes made according to the rule for roots with initial consonant, regularly follows the norm of the *i* passive of roots with initial vowel. Roots beginning with other consonants have sometimes the same formation.—e. g.,

<i>Root.</i>	hólog 'fall.'	pások 'enter.'
<i>Pret.</i>	inihólog, inahólog	inipások, inapások
<i>Pres.</i>	inihohólog, inahohólog	inipapások, inapapások
	etc.	etc.

§ 87. Some roots beginning with vowels, or with *l* or *y*, take the prefix *ni* in preterite and present of the *in* and *an* passives instead of the prefix or infix *in*, e. g.,

niunáhan (óna 'first') 'was preceded by.'
 nilolótò 'is cooked.'
 niyákap 'was embraced.'

§ 88. Dissyllabic roots beginning with *b* or *p*, besides having the regular active forms, may change *b* or *p* to *m* for the modal, to *n* for the preterite, and reduplicate the first syllable of the preterite for the present; the future is always regular.—e. g.,

<i>Root.</i>	bása 'read.'	pások 'enter.'
<i>Mod.</i>	mása	mások
<i>Pret.</i>	nása	nások
<i>Pres.</i>	nanása	nanások
<i>Fut.</i>	babása	papások

The following additional roots may also have this formation besides the regular one, viz.,

kaón 'call.'	ihì 'urinate.'
kúha 'take.'	inúm 'drink.'
tukâ 'peck, bite.'	úna 'go first, before.'
tuksó 'tempt.'	úrung 'turn back.'
akyát 'bring up.'	os'ós 'descend.'
alís 'go.'	ot'ót 'chew.'
áyaw 'not to want.'	uwí 'go home.'
igíb 'go for water.'	

Roots with initial consonant change it to *m* and *n* as above, those with initial vowel prefix *m* and *n*, e. g.,

<i>Root.</i>	toksó	alís
<i>Mod.</i>	moksó	malís
<i>Pret.</i>	noksó	nalís
<i>Pres.</i>	nonoksó	nanalís
<i>Fut.</i>	totoksó	aalís

In the construction described in § 383, *k*, in which the active modal and the modal of the *in* passive are used in juxtaposition, the modal of the *in* passive of these verbs is made on the basis of the active modal, e. g.,

mátì matiìn (báti) 'all salute.'
migíb migíbin 'all go for water.'

§ 89. A large number of polysyllabic roots beginning with *pa* form their active tense stems by changing *p* to *m* in the modal and future, to *n* in the preterite and present, and reduplicating the second syllable of the root in the future and present, e. g.,

<i>Root.</i>	pakinábang 'administer or receive the Holy Com-
<i>Mod.</i>	makinábang [munion.]
<i>Fut.</i>	makikinábang
<i>Pret.</i>	nakinábang
<i>Pres.</i>	nakikinábang.

In the passive these roots are treated like dissyllabic roots, except that in future and present, the second syllable and not the first, is reduplicated, e. g.,

Mod. pakinabángan

Fut. pakikinabángan

Pret. pinakinabángan

Pres. pinakikinabángan.

These roots are in many cases simply the passive stems of different verbal classes (cf. under SEIPLE in Bibliography).

Certain polysyllabic roots with initial *p* make their tense forms as in § 88, e. g.,

palípit 'twist.'

pakimatyág 'listen, hear.'

Other Classes.

§ 90. Some fully reduplicated roots combined with *mag—an* (cf. § 104) may take the infix *in* in the first syllable of the root with a distributive meaning, e. g.,

maghinanaphanapán 'to seek each his own.'

§ 91. Certain verbs of the *maki* class modify the initial of the root in the same way as verbs of the *manhi* class, e. g.,

makimalità (balità) 'ask for news.'

makinóso (sóso) 'ask to be suckled.'

§ 92. Verbs of the *ma* class, especially those which denote destruction, are used in the root form to indicate a present state, usually one in which the action of the verb has reached its completion, e. g.,

sonóg 'is burnt.'

sirà 'is destroyed.'

patáy 'is dead.'

tápus 'is finished.'

yári 'is ready.'

§ 93. The combination of the quasi-verb *na* and its following oblique case is sometimes treated as if it were an active verb of the *ma* class, the present form being especially frequent, e. g.,

nariríto } 'is here.'
 nariríni }
 naroroón } 'is there.'
 naririyán }
 nasasaán 'where is?'
 masasaán 'where will be?'
 nasasabáhay 'is in the house.'

§ 94. The *an* passive of *álam* 'know' in the *maka* potential class has, besides the regular preterite and present of the *an* passive, the forms pret. *naláman*, pres. *nalaláman*.

§ 95. The passive stem of many verbs of the *magpa* class may be used as a sort of verbal noun to indicate 'a thing ordered to be done' or 'a thing given as something,' e. g.,

padalá 'thing ordered to be brought, thing sent.'

pamána 'thing given as inheritance, inheritance.'

parúsa 'thing given as punishment, penance.'

§ 96. The passive stem of verbs of this class denoting 'to put in a certain position', are used as adverbs indicating the manner or position in which anything is done, e. g.,

paupô 'seated.'

patindíg 'erect.'

pahabâ 'lengthwise.'

paluhód 'on the knees, kneeling.'

VERBS MADE WITH SUBSIDIARY PARTICLES.

Subsidiary Particles in General.

§ 97. These may be classed as primary and secondary, the latter being used only in connection with the tense particles. The primary subsidiary particles are, *ka*; *kapag*, *kapagka*, *pagka*, *pag*; *ka—an*; *paka*; *pá*. The secondary subsidiary particles are *nãa*, *an*, *ga*.

Primary Subsidiary Particles.

§ 98. *Ka* is used as a prefix as follows, viz.:

a) With partially reduplicated roots to form emphatic active imperatives, e. g.,

katatápang 'exert yourself'

kalalákad 'go quickly.'

b) With partially reduplicated roots or passive verbal stems reduplicated as in future or present in the sense of 'have just,' e. g.,

kararating 'have just arrived.'

kaaalis 'have just gone.'

kapangangáral 'have just preached.'

kapagiginkapitan 'have just been made *kapitán*.'

c) With fully reduplicated roots or passive stems, to which it imparts the idea of 'as soon as—had—,' 'as soon as—began to,' 'scarcely had—': the passive stems may be reduplicated as if they were simple roots, or the reduplication may begin with the same syllable as in the reduplicated forms of the corresponding verb.—e. g.,

katakbotakbó 'as soon as—began to run.'

kapangŭpanŭsap 'as soon as—began to speak.'

kapaggantiganti 'as soon as—changed clothes.'

kapangŭsapnŭsap 'as soon as—began to speak.'

A number of roots with this last formation are used as adverbs meaning 'suddenly, immediately,' e. g.,

kaalamálam

kaginsaginsá

karingatdingat

karakaráka.

§ 99. *Kapag*, *kapagka*, *pagka*, *pag* are used as prefixes to roots and passive verbal stems in a sense very similar to that of *ka* with fully reduplicated roots; *kapagka* and *pagka* refer more particularly to the finishing of an action.—e. g.,

kapagalis 'as soon as—went, when—had gone.'

kapagkasábi 'as soon as—said, having said.'

pagkatapús 'having finished.'

pagbátì 'after saluting.'

kapagkapatólong 'as soon as—asked for help.'

kapagpatihólog 'as soon as—fell.'

Kapag is also prefixed to nouns in the sense of 'being, if—is, inasmuch as—is,' e. g.,

kapagparè 'being a priest, inasmuch as he is a priest.'
kapagkastilà 'if he is a Spaniard.'

The compounds of the root *dáka* with these particles are used as adverbs meaning 'immediately,' e. g.,

pagdáka
kapagdáka
kapagkaráka.

These particles are also used as independent conjunctions (cf. §§ 137, 327).

§ 100. *Ka—an*. These particles are used together as prefix and suffix respectively, as follows, viz.:

a) With roots in the sense of 'to be about to,' e. g.,

kamatáyan 'being about to die.'

kasulátan 'being about to write.'

b) With roots and passive verbal stems to denote that the action indicated falls to the lot of the agent, e. g.,

katanóran 'turn to be shepherd.'

kapagmisahán 'turn to say mass.'

c) With roots, indicating 'the reason why,' e. g.,

katakótan 'because of fear.'

kaopahán 'because of salary.'

§ 101. *Paka* is prefixed to any word in the sense of 'to be like, fill the place of.' These compound words are treated as passive stems, and are used in the *in* passive, ordinarily in the preterite with the meaning of a present, sometimes in the imperative, e. g.,

pinakamagúlang 'be like, supply the place of a parent.'

pinakatinápay 'be in place of bread.'

pakapilákin 'take in place of silver.'

§ 102. The prefix *pa* pronounced with separate accent, viz. *pá* (cf. § 12), forms emphatic imperatives, indicating 'to perform the action with greater energy than before,' *pá* being treated like a special passive particle. It makes passive imperatives according to rule, and also imperatives like those in § 80.—e. g.,

pá-hampasín 'be beaten still more severely.'

ipá-táas 'elevate still more.'

pá-bigyán 'be presented with still more.'

pá-lákad 'go still more.'
 pá-lápit 'approach still nearer.'
 pá-pálò 'be beaten still more soundly.'
 pá-tapónan 'be thrown with still greater force.'
 pá-buksí 'open still more quickly.'

Secondary Subsidiary Particles.

§ 103. The particle *n̄ga* is inserted after the first vowel of certain of the active verbal forms beginning with *mag*, *ma* or their derived forms *nag*, *na*, to indicate plurality of agents. The principal verbal classes that take this particle are the *mag*, *magsi*, *magka*, and *ma* classes.—e. g.,

mangagtángis 'to weep (of many)'	} <i>from</i>	
mangagtatángis 'will weep (of many)'		magtan̄gis
nangagtángis 'wept (of many)'		'weep
nangagtatángis 'are weeping (of many)'		(of many).'
mangagkakaútang 'will owe (of many)'	} <i>from</i> magkaú-	
nangagkakaútang 'owe (of many)'		tang 'owe.'
mangamamatáy 'are about to die (of many)'	} <i>from</i> mamatáy	
nangamamatáy 'are dying (of many)'		'die.'

§ 104. The particle *an* is suffixed to the active forms of certain of the verbal classes, the most important of which are the *mag*, *magka*, *maki*, and *manhi* classes. It usually imparts a reciprocal meaning or emphasizes that meaning when the verb is already reciprocal; with intransitive verbs it indicates to perform the action in competition with others.—e. g.,

magtulón̄gan 'help one another.'
 magtakbóhan 'run in competition with others, race.'
 makitaníman 'hate one another.'
 mahing̃otóhan (kóto) 'clean one another's heads of vermin'.

Certain transitive verbs double this suffix to indicate competition, e. g.,

magtólak 'push (of many).'
 magtolakán 'push each other.'
 magtolakánan 'push one another to see which will push the hardest.'

§ 105. The particle *ga* is prefixed to a verbal form in the sense of 'to feign to be or do what the verb indicates,' e. g.,
ga-nagbibilí 'he feigns to be selling.'
ga-bungmibilí 'he feigns to be buying.'
ga-nagtatangís 'he feigns to be weeping.'

ADVERBS.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

§ 106. With regard to meaning, adverbs may be divided into the following classes, viz.:

Adverbs of manner.

Adverbs of time.

Adverbs of place.

Adverbs of degree.

Affirmative or emphatic adverbs.

Negative adverbs.

Interrogative adverbs.

Modal adverbs.

Consecutive adverbs.

Numeral adverbs (cf. §§ 40, 41).

Sometimes the same adverb may belong to two or more classes.

Adverbs of manner.

§ 107. Simple adverbs of manner are usually identical with the *ma* adjectives, e. g.,

magalíng 'well' (as adj. 'good').

masamá 'badly' (as adj. 'bad').

malakás 'severely' (as adj. 'strong').

But not all *ma* adjectives can be so employed, e. g., *mabait* 'judicious,' *marínung* 'learned.'

Adjectives of the root form are not usually employed as adverbs of manner.

§ 108. Certain adjectives of equality modified by an adverb with prefix *ga* (cf. § 123), are used as adverbs of manner, e. g.,

ganiyáng karáhan 'so slowly.'

gaanó kalímit 'how often?'

§ 109. Some adverbs of manner are expressed by the oblique case of a noun or root, e. g.,

sa háyag 'openly, publicly.'

sa líhim 'secretly.'

sa baít 'judiciously.'

§ 110. Adverbs of manner indicating a gradual development are expressed by fully reduplicated roots, e. g.,

untiuntî 'little by little.'

inot'inót 'slowly, gradually.'

§ 111. The particle *ga* 'like' prefixed to the genitive or nominative of the demonstrative pronouns makes a number of indefinite adverbs of manner, e. g.,

ganító, gaitó 'like this, thus.'

ganiyán
ganoón, gay'ón } 'like that, thus.'

Prefixed to interrogative pronouns it forms interrogative adverbs of manner, e. g.,

gaanó 'like what, how?'

gaalín 'like which, how?'

Certain of these adverbs may take the prefix *kasing* (cf. § 160), e. g.,

kasinggay'ón
kasingganiyán } 'in that very manner.'

§ 112. The particle *pa* prefixed to certain interrogative pronouns and adverbs with prefix *ga* makes adverbs of manner, e. g.,

paanó
paanoanó } 'how?'

paganiyón 'thus.'

For verbal roots indicating position with this *pa* cf. § 96.

§ 113. Interrogative adverbs of manner may be made indefinite by the addition of *man*, e. g.,

paanó man 'in some way, anyhow.'

Adverbs of Time.

§ 114. Adverbs of time may be either definite, referring to some special point of time, or indefinite, indicating some modification or limitation of time in general.

Definite.

§ 115. The present day is denoted by

nğay'ón 'today, now.'

nğay'óng áraw na itó 'today.'

Days in the future are expressed by—

búkas 'tomorrow;'

the numeral adverbs up to 'nineteen' inclusive, e. g.,

makalawá 'day after tomorrow,'

makatló 'three days from today,'

makalabí-ng isá 'eleven days from today;'

the cardinals modifying the word for day from 'twenty' upward, e. g.,

ikalawá-ng pówo-ng áraw 'twenty days from today.'

ikatló-ng pówo-ng áraw 'thirty days from today.'

An indefinite day in the future is expressed by

búkas makalawá 'someday or other.'

These numeral adverbs are often preceded by *sa*, e. g.,

sa makalawá 'day after tomorrow.'

sa ikalawá-ng pówo-ng áraw 'twenty days from today.'

§ 116. Days in the past are expressed by the prefix *ka*

with nouns of time, and the numeral adverbs, e. g.,

kahápon 'yesterday.'

kagab'í 'last night.'

kamakalawá 'day before yesterday.'

kamakalimá 'five days ago.'

kamakailán 'in former times.'

From 'ten' upward they are usually expressed by a circumlocution with *may* 'there is, it is' followed by a noun clause (cf. § 321), meaning 'it is now so and so many days since.'

The forms with *kamaka* may modify the noun *áraw*, e. g.,

kamakalimá-ng áraw 'five days ago.'

kamakailáng áraw 'in former times.'

§ 117. Other divisions of time are enumerated, in the future by the oblique, in the past by the genitive of the noun of time modified by the ordinal numerals, except for the first, where *isá* is employed; the oblique may have the same meaning as the genitive in connection with a preterite (cf. § 373. 1).—e. g.,

nang isá-ng linggó 'last week.'

nang ikatló-ng taón 'three years ago.'

sa isá-ng linggó 'next week.'

sa ikalimá-ng taón 'five years hence.'

§ 118. Other definite adverbs are expressed by the genitive and oblique, and sometimes by the nominative of nouns of time, e. g.,

nang umága 'in the morning.'

sa hápon 'in the evening.'

itó-ng linggó 'this week.'

isá-ng áraw 'one day.'

§ 119. Definite adverbs which denote a recurrent period of time are formed by placing *kun* 'when' before a noun of time, e. g.,

kun gab'í 'at night (when it is night).'

kun domíngo 'on Sundays.'

kun tagáraw 'in the summer.'

§ 120. Distributive adverbs of time containing the idea 'every' are made by full repetition of a noun of time or by placing the conjunction *túwi-ng* 'whenever,' before a noun of time, e. g.,

araw'araw 'every day.'

taontaón 'every year.'

túwi-ng áraw 'every day.'

túwi-ng linggó 'every week.'

Indefinite.

§ 121. 1. The genitive of the demonstrative *yaón* 'that,' either alone or modifying a following noun or root denoting time, or the combination of such a noun with *isá* 'one,' forms adverbs referring to indefinite past time, e. g.,

noón	}	'then, at that time.'
nión		
niyón		
niyaón		

noóng úna 'ever, at any previous time, formerly.'

noóng isá-ng áraw 'the other day.'

§ 121. 2. The principal other indefinite adverbs are, viz.:

na (*postp.*) 'now, already.'

pa (*postp.*) 'still.'

unaúna 'at first, in the first place.'

kailán 'when?'

kanġína }
kanína } 'a short time ago, just.'

kanġikanġína }
kanikanġína } 'a very short time ago.'

sa makailán 'some days ago.'

bágo 'newly, recently, just.'

mamayâ 'a short time afterwards, soon.'

mamayamayâ 'a very short time afterwards.'

sakâ 'then, afterwards.'

múna (*postp.*) 'first, sooner.'

paráti }
palági }
lági } 'always.'

túwi }
magpatóloy man saán }
magparatíng man saán } 'for ever.'

hanggán kailán man }
kailán man }
kaikailán } 'ever, never (in connection with a negative).'

minsán 'once, at one time.'

kun minsán }
maminsanminsán } 'sometimes.'

manakanakâ }
ulî 'again.'

madalás }
malímit }
dî mamakailán } 'often, frequently.'

minsán duwâ }
misanduwâ }
madálang } 'rarely, seldom.'

bihíra }

karaníwan 'generally.'

bihasâ 'customarily.'

dáti 'usually, as in the past.'

sa ugáli 'usually.'

biglá 'suddenly.'

agád	}	'immediately.'
alipála		
kagyát		
tambíng		
kaginsaginsá	}	'suddenly, immediately (cf. § 98).'
karakaráka		
kaalamálam		
pagdáka		
kapagdáka	}	'immediately (cf. § 99).'
kapagkaráka		
katapustapúsan	}	'finally (cf. § 129).'
etc.		

Adverbs of Place.

§ 122. As adverbs of place are used:

a) the oblique case forms of the demonstratives, viz.,

díni } 'here.'

dító } 'there.'

b) forms containing the oblique case of the article prefixed to a particle *an*, probably equivalent to *anó* 'what?', viz.,

saán 'where?' (literally 'in what,' cf. § 226).

saán man 'anywhere, everywhere.'

c) the oblique case forms of nouns of place, the principal of which are, viz.:

sa itaás 'above.'

sa ibabâ 'below.'

sa haráp 'before.'

sa likód 'behind.'

sa tapát 'in front, opposite.'

sa ibábaw 'on the top.'

sa ilálim 'underneath.'

sa piling 'at the side.'

sa tabí 'alongside.'

sa kánan 'on the right.'

sa kaliwâ 'on the left.'
 sa lóob 'within.'
 sa labás 'without.'
 sa gitnâ 'in the middle, midst.'
 sa pagítan 'in the middle, half-way.'
 sa kabilâ 'from one side to another.'
 sa magkabilâ 'from both sides.'
 sa magkabikabilâ 'from all sides.'
 sa palíbot 'round about.'

Adverbs of Degree.

§ 123. Adverbs of degree denoting 'to the degree of, like,' are formed from pronouns and nouns by prefixing *ga* to the nominative, except in the case of demonstratives where the genitive is usually employed. Those made from demonstratives and interrogatives are also used as adverbs of manner (cf. § 111).—e. g.,

gaanó	}	'to what extent, how?'
gaalín		
ganitó	}	'to this extent, so.'
gaitó		
gabató		'like, as a stone.'
gaakó		'like me, as I.'

Instead of *ga*, *gaga* and *gangga*, the latter usually indicating plurality, are also used, e. g.,

gagapowíng 'as tiny as a mote.'
 gangganitó 'like these.'

§ 124. The principal other adverbs of degree are, viz.:

lálò 'more.'
 pasubáli 'less.'

lubhâ	}	'very.'
masákit		
maínam		
totóo		
dĩ sapála		
dĩ hámak		
dĩ palák		

túnay	'really, truly.'
polós	} 'purely.'
toganás	
mistúlà	
parapára	} 'equally.'
magkapáris	
magkapára	
hálos	'almost.'
bahagyá	} 'scarcely, hardly.'
bulinyâ	
namán	(<i>postp.</i>) 'also.'
lábis	'too much, too.'
lámang	(<i>postp.</i>) 'only.'
bukód	} 'especially, particularly.'
tángi	
pa	(<i>postp.</i>) 'more, besides, else.'
kauntî	} 'a little.'
muntî	
manawâ	} 'not at all (in connection with a negative).'
isamán	
tumbás	'for each.'

Affirmative or Emphatic Adverbs.

§ 125. These are, viz.:

nğa	} 'indeed' (<i>all postpositive</i>).
nğáni	
din	
mandin	
palá	} (<i>absolute affirmatives</i>).
man	
tantô	
óo	
kasí	} 'it seems so.'
totóo	
totóo-ng totóo	
mangyári	

Negative Adverbs.

§ 126. These are, viz.:

a) the categorical negatives

dî	}	'not.'
dîli		
indî		
hindî		

b) the prohibitive negative

huwág 'don't.'

c) the optative negatives

makâ	}	'may it not be that.'
bakâ		

ma dî 'may it not be that not.'

d) and

kapalápa 'it is surely not so that.'

The quasi-verb *walâ* is similar to a negative adverb (cf. §§ 224, 229, 230).

The absolute negative is expressed by *hindî*, *indî* 'no,' unless the negation is prohibitive, in which case *huwág* is used; or unless it refers to ideas that are expressed in the affirmative by the quasi-verbs *may* and *na*, when it is usually *walâ*, tho *hindî*, *indî* may also be used.

Interrogative Adverbs.

§ 127. These are of three kinds, viz.,

a) indefinite, which simply indicate a question, viz.,

bagá (<i>postp.</i>)	}	<i>untranslatable.</i>
kayâ (<i>postp.</i>)		

wári (*postp.*) *expects a negative answer.*

b) special, which inquire concerning time, place, manner, cause, or means; the principal of these are, viz.,

kailán 'when?'

makailán 'how often?'

şaán 'where?'

bákit	}	'why?'
anó't		
at		

maanó 'how, in what condition?'

paanó 'how, in what way?'

gaanó }
gaalín } 'how, like what?'

c) what might be called absolute interrogatives, viz.,

hanî, haniá, 'do you understand?'

hindî ganoón }
hindî gay'ón } 'is it not so?'

sadî 'why not?'

saán pa dî }
saán pa dî gay'ón } 'how can it be any different (it
is perfectly clear)?'

diyátà 'is it possible?'

Some of those under (b) are made indefinite by adding *man*
(cf. § 29), e. g.,

kailán man 'ever, never (in connection with a negative).'

saán man 'anywhere, everywhere.'

paanó man 'anyhow.'

Kailán may also be made indefinite by full reduplication,
viz., *kaikailán*.

Modal Adverbs.

§ 128. The principal modal adverbs are, viz.:

maráhil }
upán } 'perhaps, probably, it seems.'

sakáli (*postp.*) 'perchance.'

sánà (*postp.*) }
sa " } give verb meanings similar to those
disín " } of English forms with the auxiliaries
'should,' 'would.'

nawâ " }
maáno " } give the verb force of an optative
kahimanwári } 'would that.'

daw (*postp.*) }
konó " } indicate a quotation.

anáki }
diwâ }
kasí (*postp.*) } 'it seems, I think that.'

tíla

yátà (*postp.*) }

tábi 'with your permission.'

kúsa	'willingly.'
sariyá	} 'voluntarily, on purpose.'
tikís	
paksâ	
talagá	'by nature.'
mahánġa	'it would be better.'
karaníwan	} cf. § 121. 2.
bihasâ	
dáti	
huwág	} cf. § 126.
makâ	
bakâ	
kapalápa	

Consecutive Adverbs.

§ 129. The principal consecutive adverbs and adverbial expressions, which are very similar to coordinate conjunctions, are, viz.:

tolóy	'at the same time.'
bágo	'yet, however, nevertheless.'
kayâ	'therefore.'
dî bákit	} 'for do you not see that, for.'
dî bákin	
diyátà	'therefore, and so, that is to say.'
sanhî	'in a word.'
alalaóng	} 'as if you would say, that is.'
sa makatúwid	
kun sánan sa	} 'if you can speak of—in this case' (<i>used after metaphors</i>).
kun sánà sa	
kun sánà	
kun bagá sa	
kun bagá	
katapustapúsan	} 'finally.'
kawakaswakásan	
sa katapusán	
sa kawakásan	
anó pa	
ay anó	'well then.'

FORM OF ADVERBS.

§ 130. With regard to form adverbs may be—

- a) simple, consisting of a particle or root, e. g.,
na 'already.'
búkas 'tomorrow.'
- b) derivative, made with various prefixes: these prefixes are, viz.:
ga—
kasingga—
gaga—
gangga—
ka—
kamaka—
ma—
maka—
pa—
form adverbs of manner and degree,
indicating 'likeness' (cf. §§ 111, 123).
forms a few adverbs of past time (cf. § 116).
forms adverbs indicating 'so many days ago' (cf. §§ 41, 116).
in *maanó* 'how?' (cf. § 127).
forms the numeral adverbs (cf. § 40).
forms adverbs indicating the position in which the action is performed: also certain adverbs from pronouns and other adverbs (cf. § 112).
- c) adjectival; adjectives used as adverbs (cf. e.g., §§ 107, 108).
- d) verbal, consisting of some verbal form or phrase, e. g.,
karakaraka 'immediately,' 'suddenly.'
pagdáka 'immediately.'
magparating man saán 'for ever.'
- e) genitive, consisting of the genitive case of a noun, pronoun or root, e. g.,
nang umága 'in the morning.'
nang isá-ng linggó 'last week.'
noón 'then.'
- f) oblique, consisting of the oblique case of a noun, pronoun, or root, e. g.,
sa hápon 'in the evening.'
sa lihim 'secretly.'
dito 'here.'
sa labás 'without, outside.'
- g) compound, consisting of two or more words, none of which is a verb or a form of the definite article, e. g.,

noóng úna 'ever, at any time.'
 saán man 'anywhere, everywhere.'
 ngay'óng áraw na itó 'today.'
 kun gab'i 'at night.'
 dî sapála 'very.'
 hanggán kailán man 'for ever.'
 mandín 'indeed, surely.'
 kayâ ngã 'therefore.'

- h) reduplicative, made by full reduplication of a root or adverb, the meaning of the root or adverb being generally intensified, e. g.,
 untianti 'little by little.'
 kangikangina 'a moment ago.'
 maminsanminsán 'sometimes.'
 sa magkabikabilâ 'from all sides.'
 katapustapúsan 'finally' (cf. § 55).

In *kaikailán* 'ever' from *kailán* 'when?' the reduplication changes interrogative to indefinite. *Dî mamakailán* 'often' is an instance of partial reduplication.

§ 131. In addition to the reduplicated forms given in the lists, there are many other adverbs, the meaning of which may be intensified by full reduplication as in (h), e. g.,

magparaparating man saán 'for ever and ever.'
 kaikailán man 'for ever and ever.'
 saansaán man 'anywhere, everywhere.'

§ 132. Adverbs of manner and those of the other classes which imply a manner of acting, form a comparative and an absolute superlative like the descriptive adjectives (cf. §§ 54, 56), e. g.,

lalo-ng magalíng 'better.'
 magalíng na magalíng 'very well.'
 bihira-ng bihira 'very rarely.'

§ 133. Many adverbs of the various formations other than the so-called genitive and oblique adverbs (cf. § 130, e, f), may be preceded by *nang* or *sa*, i. e., may stand in the genitive or oblique case; sometimes those in § 130, e, f, may take an additional case sign: the meaning is often about the same as in the case of the simple adverb; the genitive, however, usually

indicates past time, or is used after a verb (cf. §§ 118, 259), the oblique may have the various significations of that case.—e. g.,

nang magaling 'well.'
 nang minsán 'once.'
 nang búkas makalawá 'some day or other (in the future).'
 sa biglá 'suddenly.'
 sa túwi-ng umága 'every morning.'
 sa noón 'for then.'
 sa búkas, 'for tomorrow.'
 sa gay'ón 'thus.'
 sa araw'araw 'every day.'

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 134. Prepositions may be divided into three classes, viz.:

a) Those which govern the oblique case, the principal of which are, viz.:

ga 'like.'
 bágay }
 tungkól } 'as for, concerning, with respect to.'
 dahil }
 dahilán } 'on account of.'
 áwà 'out of compassion for.'
 pakundánggan }
 pasubáli } 'out of respect to.'
 alang'alang }
 libán }
 tángì } 'except.'
 bukód 'besides.'
 lában 'against.'
 tapát 'facing, opposite.'
 áyon }
 alinsónod } 'according to.'
 bágo 'before (of time).'
 ibá 'aside from, apart from.'

b) Those with *sa* as the first element which govern the genitive, for the most part identical with the adverbs of place in § 122. Others are, e. g.,

sa lagáy 'instead of.'

sa holóp 'in exchange for.'

sa mulâ 'beginning from' (cf. § 210).

sa tabí 'beside.'

c) Those which have other constructions, viz.,

kundi 'except, but.'

kundángan }
dángan } 'if it were not for.'

holóp 'worth, of the value of, equivalent to.'

balí 'something like.'

kúlang 'without, lacking.'

ganán 'for, belonging to, concerning.'

sampón }
patí } 'together with, in addition to.'

tolóy 'together with.'

mulâ }
búhat } 'beginning from, from.'

hanggán 'up to, until.'

dáko }
dápít } 'towards.'

Mulâ-ng mulâ 'from the very beginning of' is a sort of superlative of *mulâ* (cf. § 56). For nouns with prefix *ka* used as prepositions cf. § 362, 7.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 135. Conjunctions may be divided into two classes, viz.:

a) those which connect words, phrases, or sentences of the same rank, coordinate; they may be either simple or correlative, the latter consisting of two parts one of which is used with each of the two sentences connected:

b) those which join two sentences, one of which is dependent in some way on the other, subordinate.

§ 136. The principal coordinate conjunctions are, viz.:

Simple.

at 'and, for.'

kun }
o } 'or.'

alintána	}	'but.'
bagkús		
datapuwa		
kundî		
nǵúni		
sabáli		

kundî bagkús 'but on the contrary.'

na-ng (*in § 209 practically a coordinate conjunction*).

Correlative.

man (*postp.*) ... { man (*postp.*)
namán (*postp.*) } 'either ... or; neither ...

nor (*in connection with a negative*).'

magín(g) magín(g) 'either ... or, both ... and.'

nayaóng nayaóng 'now now.'

hindî—lámang (*postp.*) kundî—namán (*postp.*) 'not only—but also.'

§ 137. The principal subordinate conjunctions are, viz.:

na, -ng (*the ligature*) 'that.'

na „ 'so ... that, so that; in order that.'

gay'óng	}	'as, just as, according as.'
pára nang		
pára-ng		
gáya nang		
áyon sa		

konowári 'as if.'

nang 'when, in order that.'

upán 'in order that.'

makâ	}	'lest.'
bakâ		

noón	}	'when.'
nión		
niyón		
niyaón		

túwi(-ng)	}	'whenever.'
sa túwi(-ng)		

bágo 'before.'

tambáy 'after.'

kápag	}	'as soon as, after.'
kapagká		
pagká		
pag		
sa		
sayaóng		'from the time that.'
samantála(-ng)	}	'while.'
hanggán		
sa pagká	}	'because.'
dahíl sa		
dahilán sa		
kayâ		'just because.'
mayápà		'simply because.'
palibhásà	}	'since, in as much as.'
báwa		
yámang	}	'seeing that, since, if.'
yayámang		
hámang		
háyang		
hayámang	}	'although.'
man (<i>postp.</i>)		
bagamán		
káhi		
kahíman		
bistâ		
sukdán		
matáyman		
huwág lámang		'provided that not.'
kun		'when, if, whether.'
saganó	}	'if perchance.'
sakáli		
kundi		'if not, unless.'
kundánggan	}	'if it were not that.'
dánggan		
haringá		
libán sa	}	'except that, unless.'
pasubáli sa		

§ 138. The ligature is used itself as a conjunction, and besides may form the final element of certain other conjunctions, being sometimes essential, sometimes not, e. g., *gay'óng*, *pará-ng*, *tíawi(-ng)*.

Conjunctions ending in *n* and *ng* have in many cases by-forms in *ng* and *n* respectively; the *ng* of these forms probably contains the ligature, e. g., *kung*, *upáng*, *sukdáng*; *háman*, *hayáman*.

Certain conjunctions, especially adversative and concessive conjunctions ending in a vowel or *n* are usually followed by *at* 'and,' e. g., *káhi't*, *kahima't*, *bistá't*, *datapuwá't*, *ng'uni't*, *sapagká't*, *haringá't*: *at* or *o* 'or' may stand between the two correlatives *man...man*: *kundi* is not used with this *at*. A conjunction of purpose is sometimes preceded by *at*, e. g., *at nang*.

Palibhása is regularly followed by the particle *ay*, viz., *palibhása'y*.

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 139. The principal interjections are, viz.:

abá 'oh, ah, hello, alas!'

ayá } 'oh!'
oh }

oyá 'hello!'

ay } *vocative particles.*
oy }

siyá 'well!'

siyá ngã 'surely, of course, yes indeed!'

siyá nawâ }
manawâ } 'so be it, amen!'
dî ngã salámat }
dî ngã bahagyá }

siyá na } 'enough!'
súkat na }

aróy } 'alas, oh woe!'
aráy }

palá 'there, well!'

a (*postp.*)
ayá (*postp.*)
bapá (*postp.*)
si

} *particles denoting wonder, admiration.*

sáyang 'what a pity!'

dalí 'quick, be quick!'

súlong 'forward, cheer up!'

úrung 'back!'

tábi }
ílag }

'away!'

áa 'I don't want to!'

búti ngá 'good, all right, bravo!'

iná ko

nakó } 'gracious, goodness (oh mother)!'

nakú }

ay Diós ko 'oh God!'

kaawaáwà 'poor thing!'

salámat { 'thank you, thanks!'
'welcome!'

itó na 'here, take it!'

manaá 'behold!'

narító 'behold, lo!'

píkà *used to insult or affront a person, the user spitting
at the same time in the direction of the person
addressed.*

lintík 'the devil!'

a-a-a

ha-ha-ha } *laughter.*

sa

su } *used to frighten chickens 'shoo!'*

o 'who is there (at the door)? stop!' (*used by women*).

Bapá and *ayá* may be combined with following *a viz.,
bapáa, ayáa.*

Here are also to be classed the absolute affirmatives,
negatives, and interrogatives (cf. §§ 125, 126, 127).

III. APPENDIX. DERIVATIVE NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

§ 140. Derivative nouns and adjectives may be considered under four heads, viz.:

- a) those made from the verbal stem without external addition, or with the prefix *pag*.
- b) those made with the suffixes *an* and *in*: in nouns of this class the same irregularities of formation that occur with the corresponding verbal suffixes are usually found (cf. § 81); the first syllable of the root is sometimes reduplicated, without change of meaning, especially in those roots which have irregular forms, and in those which begin with *l*.
- c) those made with the infix-prefix *in*, alone and in connection with the suffix *an*.¹
- d) those made with various prefixes, either alone or in conjunction with the suffixes *an*, *in*.

The accent of words derived with the suffixes *an*, *in* is shifted according to § 17. The accent of derivative not made with these suffixes, is often different from that of the root.

VERBAL NOUNS.

§ 141. The forms, active and passive, of all tenses, of the various verbal classes may be employed without change as participial nouns or adjectives (cf. § 416).

§ 142. From the active future, and sometimes from the active present stem of all the verbal groups except the first, are formed frequentatives, i. e., nouns or adjectives denoting the frequent exercise of the action, e. g.,

magbabaká	}	'warrior.'
nagbabaká		
magsasaká		'laborer, farmer.'
mananáhi		'tailor.'

¹ An infix with the varying forms *la*, *li*, *lo* seems to occur in certain words, e. g., *salaysáy* 'explain' from *saysáy* 'explain', but as it has practically become a part of the root in every case, and has ceased to be a living derivative element, it need not be considered here (cf. WOLFENSON in Bibliography).

manġingġisdâ 'fisherman.'

makahihiyâ 'that which makes ashamed, shameful.'

makamamatáy 'that which causes death, mortal.'

§ 143. From the passive future or modal stem of the *maka* potential class are made frequentative adjectives like those which end in English in '-able, -ible.' The future and modal forms are in general used interchangeably, but the modal is the regular form after a negative (cf. § 412, d).—e. g.,

makakáin } 'eatable.'
makáin }

magagawâ } 'feasible.'
magawâ }

dî makáin 'not eatable.'

dî masábi 'unspeakable.'

dî malapítan 'inaccessible.'

§ 144. All the verbal classes make abstract nouns of action.

In group I they are formed by prefixing *pag* to the root, e. g.,

pag-súlat 'act of writing;'

in group IV, by prefixing *pag* to the passive stem with special particle *ka*, e. g.,

a pag-kalumbáy 'condition of being sad,'

b pag-katákot 'act of causing to fear,'

b pag-kalákad 'condition of being able to go;'

in group V **a**, by prefixing *pag* to the passive stem with special particle *pa*, e. g.,

pag-paálam 'act of asking permission.'

All the other verbal classes (viz., groups II, III, and V, **b c**) make these nouns by changing the initial *m* or *n* of the active future or present respectively to *p*. In the *magka* class however, the reduplicated syllable is always *ka*, even when it is not the reduplicated syllable in the verb.—e. g.,

II **a** pag'aáral 'act of learning.'

d pagkakasála 'act of sinning.'

f pagigin(g)banál 'act of becoming virtuous.'

III **a** pandidíri 'act of being nauseated.'

pamimili(bili) 'act of buying much.'

V **b** pagpapagawâ 'act of causing to make.'

Irregular polysyllabic verbs beginning with *p*, and the auxiliary *mangyári* 'be able' have the same formation, e. g.,

pakikinábang 'act of administering or receiving the Holy Communion.'

pangyayári 'condition of being able.'

The passive stems of a number of verbs are used without change as nouns, e. g.,

pakinábang 'advantage.'

paalam 'permission.'

pangálan 'name.'

From such polysyllabic nouns regarded as roots are derived most of the irregular polysyllabic verbs in § 89.

THE SUFFIXES AN AND IN.

THE SUFFIX AN.

§ 145. This suffix is used as follows.

a) It forms nouns which denote place from roots or the verbal nouns in § 144, e. g.,

upóan 'seat'	<i>from</i> upô 'sit down.'
inumán 'vessel'	„ inúm 'drink.'
sagingán 'banana orchard'	„ ságing 'banana.'
tubigán 'place for throw- ing water'	} „ túbig 'water.'
lalamónan 'gullet'	
kakánan 'refectory'	„ káin 'eat.'
pagbabaonán 'burying place'	} „ pagbabaón 'burying.'
pangangáralan 'pulpit'	
	„ pangangáral 'preaching.'

b) With words of measure and weight it denotes a measure or weight of so much, e. g.,

saópan 'measure of one ganta'	<i>from</i> salóp 'ganta (about three liters).'
tatlóhan 'measure of three gantas'	} „ tatló 'three.'
tahélan 'weight of one táhel'	
	„ táhel.

ilanán 'measure of how many?' *from* ilán 'how many?'
 magkanohán 'measure of how much?' „ magkanó 'how much?'

In the case of certain compound numerals the suffix may be added to the first part, e. g.,

labihán isá 'measure of eleven gantas' *from* labí-ng isá 'eleven.'

Some of these nouns may take the prefix *sang* (cf. § 159), e. g.,
 sang'apatán 'a four-ganta measure full.'

Under this head are probably to be classed nouns which denote a wager of so much, e. g.,

salapían 'wager of half a peso' *from* salapî 'half-peso.'
 korótan 'wager of a pinch' „ korót 'pinch.'
 patáyan 'wager of life' „ patáy 'die.'
 anohán 'wager of how much?' „ anó 'what?'

c) With roots indicating color this suffix denotes 'dressed in or covered with (literally 'place of') such and such a color,' e. g.,

putían 'covered with, dressed in white' *from* putí.
 pulahán 'covered with, dressed in red' „ pulá.

d) With nouns denoting parts of the body it indicates 'having the part abnormally large,' e. g.,

olohán 'big-headed' *from* ólo 'head.'
 ilongǎn 'having a big nose' „ ilóng 'nose.'

e) With certain roots it denotes 'having such and such vices or faults' (cf. *pala* § 157), e. g.,

bibigán 'babblers' *from* bibíg 'mouth.'
 sombóngǎn 'tale-bearer' „ sombóng 'complaint.'
 opasaláan 'treacherous' „ opasálà (*same*).

f) With certain verbal roots it denotes that which happens, is spoken about, forms the topic of discussion, etc. in a place, e. g.,

sabíhan 'what is spoken about.'
 tanóngǎn 'what is asked about.'

g) With fully reduplicated roots it forms diminutives, e. g.,

ibonibónan 'little bird' *from* íbon 'bird.'
 tawotawóhan 'manikin' „ táwo 'man.'
 prinseprinsesáhan 'little princess' „ prinsésa 'princess.'

THE SUFFIX IN.

§ 146. This forms nouns which in general denote either likeness or similarity to what the root indicates; or the object of the action of the root. It is used as follows.

a) With names of birds it makes names of cocks having color of bird, e. g.,

uwákin 'cock black as a raven' *from* uwák 'raven.'
lalawínin 'cock colored like a kite' „ láwin 'kite.'

b) From various roots it forms complimentary terms which are applied to women in love-making, e. g.,

polotín 'sweet woman' *from* polót 'honey.'
gandáhin 'beautiful woman' „ gandá 'lily.'

c) From names of money it forms with partial reduplication nouns which signify something having the value of the money, e. g.,

sasalapín *from* salapî 'half peso.'
sasaikapátin „ saikápat 'real.'

d) From *laláki* 'man' and *babáyi* 'woman' are made the irregular nouns,

lalakínin 'virago.'
babayínin 'effeminate.'

e) With roots indicating action it denotes that upon which the action is habitually exercised, e. g.,

inúmin 'drink' *from* inúm 'drink.'
kánin } 'food, boiled rice' „ káin 'eat.'
kakanín }
hampasín 'one who is often beaten' „ hampás 'beat.'

f) With roots indicating diseases, defects and faults it denotes 'affected by them,' e. g.,

galísín 'having the itch' *from* galís 'itch.'
tomáhin 'lousy' „ tóma 'louse.'
tiyánin 'corpulent' „ tiyán 'belly.'

g) From a few roots it makes frequentatives (cf. § 142), e. g.,

libákin 'scoffer' *from* libák 'scoff.'
tampóhin 'deserter' „ tampó 'anger.'
biróin 'jester, scoffer' „ bíró 'jest, play.'

THE INFIX-PREFIX IN.

§ 147. This particle, which is infixed in the first syllable of words or roots with initial consonant, and prefixed to those with initial vowel, forms nouns similar in meaning to those formed with the suffix *in*.

a) From names of flowers, fruits, etc. it forms names of jewels which resemble them, e. g.,

sinampága *from* sampága 'a flower like jasmine.'

b) From various names of colored things it forms names of colors, e. g.,

ginúlay 'greenish blue, blue' *from* gúlay 'vegetables, greens.'

c) From various nouns it forms names of species of rice resembling them in some way, e. g.,

kinaráyum 'long, thin rice' *from* karáyum 'needle.'

d) From nouns of relationship with partial reduplication, it forms nouns, signifying to partake in some measure of the relationship indicated by the underived words, e. g.,

inaamá 'god-father' *from* amá 'father.'

kinakapatíd 'like a brother' „ kapatíd 'brother.'

inaasáwa 'concubine' „ asáwa 'wife.'

e) From roots denoting action it forms nouns indicating what is formed by the action, e. g.,

tinápay 'bread' *from* tápay 'knead.'

sinúlíd 'spun cotton' „ súlíd 'spin.'

§ 148. The infix-prefix *in* may be combined with the suffix *an*. Nouns of this sort are of two kinds, viz.:—

a) Those indicating the refuse, scraps etc, produced by the action of the root, e. g.,

tinabásan 'scraps of cloth' *from* tábas 'cut.'

kinayásan 'parings' „ káyas 'scrape, pare.'

b) Those indicating something made with the root, or by the action of the root, e. g.,

pinolótán 'something made with honey' *from* polót 'honey.'

sinuláman 'embroidered mat, handkerchief' *from* súlam 'work with needle.'

In order to indicate abundance the particles are applied to the root with prefixed *pag*, e. g., *pinagtabásan*, *pinagkayásan*.

PREFIXES.

KA.

§ 149. The function of this prefix *ka* seems to be in general to indicate an individual one of a number of persons or things; it is used as follows.

a) It forms nouns of simple individuality, e. g.,

katáwo 'one man.'

kapótol 'one piece.'

To accentuate the idea of unity reduplicated forms like *kaka-pótol* and *kakatakatáwo* are sometimes made.

Some of these nouns take the suffix *an*, e. g.,

kahanapán 'what is sought at one time.'

katahián 'a needle full (of thread).'

b) With various words it makes nouns denoting one of a number who are associated in some way, e. g.,

kasáma 'companion' *from* sáma 'accompany.'

kasangbáhay 'of the same house' „ sangbáhay 'one house' (cf. § 159).

Sometimes the first syllable of the word to be derived is reduplicated, e. g.,

kababáyan 'of the same town' *from* báyan 'town.'

c) With roots denoting reciprocal action, it indicates one of those that perform the action. The addition of *an* at the end makes these nouns frequentative. — e. g.,

katólong 'one of those that help one another' *from* tólong 'help.'

kaáway 'one of those that quarrel' *from* áway 'quarrel.'

katolóngan 'one of those that often help one another.'

d) It forms nouns which denote one of a number of friends who have joined together for the purpose of eating the same thing or drinking from the same vessel, being prefixed to the thing eaten or drunk, e. g.,

kaatáy 'companion in eating liver' *from* atáy 'liver.'

katúbig 'companion in drinking water' „ túbig 'water.'

e) It forms nouns and adjectives denoting one of those that are similar in a certain respect, being prefixed to that in which the similarity consists; these adjectives will be known as adjectives of equality. — e. g.,

kapára 'like'	<i>from</i> pára 'likeness.'
kamukhâ 'resembling in face'	„ mukhâ 'face.'
kagalisín 'equally affected with itch' ted with itch.'	„ galisín 'affected with itch.'
kaolohán 'having an equally large head'	„ olohán 'big-headed.'

From adjectives beginning with *ma* this formation is made by changing *ma* to *ka*, e. g.,

karúnung 'equally learned'	<i>from</i> marúnung 'learned.'
kalápad 'equally wide'	„ malápad 'wide.'
kapagsonód 'equally obedient'	„ mapagsonód 'obedient.'

In these adjectives, instead of the prefix *ka*, the prefixes *sing* or *kasing* may be employed with the same meaning, e. g., *singdúnung*, *kasingdúnung*. Adjectives with prefixed *sing* have the root partially reduplicated when they refer to more than two, e. g., *singdurúnung*.

f) Prefixed to fully reduplicated roots it forms adjectives which denote qualities that affect the mind, e. g.,

kaibig'ibig 'lovable'	<i>from</i> ibig 'want, like.'
katuwatúwà 'causing joy'	„ túwà 'rejoice.'
katakottákot 'fearful'	„ tákot 'fear.'

g) Prefixed to simple or partially reduplicated roots it forms abstracts which are used only in exclamations, e. g.,

karámi 'muchness, quantity'	<i>from</i> dámi 'quantity.'
kagagálit 'anger'	„ gálit 'be angry.'

§ 150. The prefix *ka* is often used in conjunction with the suffix *an*. This combination is employed as follows.

a) It forms collective nouns from various words, e. g.,

kabatáan 'boys'	<i>from</i> bátà 'boy.'
kakristianóhan 'Christendom'	„ kristiáno 'Christian.'
kapolóan 'archipelago'	„ pólo 'island.'

b) With the roots of adjectives it forms abstract nouns,

e. g.,

kabanálan 'virtue'	<i>from</i>	banál 'virtuous.'
kagalínġan 'goodness'	„	magáling 'good.'
kagandáhan 'beauty'	„	magandá 'beautiful.'
karunúnġan 'knowledge'	„	marúnung 'learned.'

These abstracts may be intensified by partial or full reduplication of the root or by full reduplication of the compound, e. g.,

karurunúnġan	} 'knowledge.'
karunungdunúnġan	
karukarunúnġan	

These reduplicated forms are used especially in exclamations (cf. § 295) and in the construction in § 362, II.

c) With nouns denoting nations, living beings, and with roots denoting action it forms nouns which indicate custom, habit or manner, e. g.,

katagalógan 'custom of the Tagalogs'	<i>from</i>	Tagálog.
kahayópan 'habit of animals'	„	háyop 'animal.'
kasulátan 'manner of writing'	„	súlat 'write.'

d) With fully reduplicated roots of adjectives it forms superlatives, e. g.,

katam'istam'isan 'sweetest'	<i>from</i>	matam'is 'sweet.'
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e) With names of things which are made, it makes nouns signifying 'material sufficient to make them, e. g.,

kabaróan 'material for a shirt'	<i>from</i>	bárò 'shirt.'
kabahayán 'material for a house'	„	báhay 'house.'

These nouns may be compounded with the *ka* of individuality, e. g.,

ka-kabaróan 'material for a single shirt,'

with reduplication, *kakabakabaróan*.

f) With various roots it forms nouns denoting share or part in what the root indicates, e. g.,

kamanáhan 'share in an inheritance'	<i>from</i>	mána 'inherit.'
katongkólan 'share in obligation; duty'	„	tongkól 'pertaining to.'

g) It forms nouns of place a) from various nouns, denoting place where there is much of what the noun indicates; b) from verbal roots, denoting the place, person, or thing upon which everyone exercises the action in question.—e. g.,

kapalayán 'place of many rice fields' 'rice.'	<i>from</i> paláy
kabukirán 'place of many fields' 'field.'	„ búkid
kanigoán 'place where they shoot at a target' 'hit what is aimed at.'	„ nígò
kasabihán 'person spoken of by all' 'say.'	„ sábi

Sometimes the root is partially reduplicated, e. g.,

katitisóran 'place where people usually stumble' 'stumble.'	„ tisód
kahohológan 'place where people usually fall' 'fall.'	„ hólóg

h) *Ka* is used with *an* also as in § 149, a, c.

MA, MAPAG.

§ 151. The prefix *ma* forms adjectives and frequentatives. It is used as follows.

- a) With simple roots it forms descriptive adjectives (cf. § 52).
- b) It is combined with nouns in the sense of having an abundance of what the noun denotes, e. g.,

mapálay 'having much rice'	<i>from</i> pálay 'rice.'
masalapî 'having much money'	„ salapî 'money.'
mabató 'having many stones'	„ bató 'stone.'

- c) It is combined with partially reduplicated roots to form the plural of the *ma* adjectives (cf. § 53).

- d) It is combined with fully reduplicated roots to form diminutive adjectives, e. g.,

mabutibúti 'somewhat, pretty good.'
masamasamá 'somewhat bad.'
malakaslakás 'somewhat strong.'

- e) It is combined with the passive stems of the different verbal classes, most frequently with II a (*mag*) to form nouns and adjectives which indicate frequency of action, e. g.,

mapagbáka 'fighting much.'
mapagsonód 'obedient by habit.'
mapanúlat (súlat) 'given to writing.'

Mapag, a combination of this *ma* with the passive particle of the *mag* class may be used before derivative nouns and passive stems not beginning with *pag* or *pan* to form similar frequentatives, e. g.,

mapagkasalánan 'sinning much.'

mapagpakilangis 'begging continually for a little oil.'

f) It is combined with simple and sometimes partially reduplicated roots, and with passive verbal stems, in conjunction with the suffix *in*, to form nouns and adjectives similar to those in (e), e. g.,

matanónġin 'asking continually.'

masunórin 'obedient.'

matatakotín 'afraid, timid.'

masasaktín 'sickly.'

malulumbáyin 'sad.'

mapakiosapín 'given to joining in conversation.'

mapasabukirín 'going often into the field.'

g) It is prefixed to adjectives made with prefix *ka* from fully reduplicated roots, the meaning being intensified, e. g.,

makahiyahiyâ 'very shameful.'

makasindaksindák 'very terrible.'

For the prefix *mapag* cf. e above.

MAG.

§ 152. This prefix joined to nouns of relationship forms nouns which include in their meaning both the person indicated by the simple noun and the person upon whom the relationship depends, e. g.,

mag'amá 'father and son or daughter'	} from amá 'father.'
mag'iná 'mother and son or daughter'	
magkapatid 'brother and sister, two brothers'	} „ iná 'mother.'
magpangġinóon 'master and servant'	
	„ kapatid 'brother.'
	„ pangġinóon 'master.'

Mag may be combined with the nouns of companionship with prefixed *ka*, *kasing* to denote 'two,' e. g.,

magkasáma 'two companions' *from* kasáma 'companion.'

magkasingdúnong 'equally wise' *from* kasingdúnong.

By doubling the first syllable of the noun combined with *mag*, a group of three or more is indicated, e. g.,

mag'aamá 'father and sons, daughters.'

magkakapatid 'three or more brothers or sisters.'

magkakasáma 'three or more companions.'

MAN.

§ 153. This particle prefixed to names of money or measures, and to 'ten' and its powers (cf. § 39), imparts a distributive meaning equal to 'apiece.' When the simple noun begins with *p*, *k*, *s*, *d*, the phonetic changes described in § 9 take place. Before vowels the prefix has often the form *manǵ*. The first syllable of these nouns is reduplicated to indicate the idea of 'only.'—e. g.,

mamíso 'a peso apiece'

from píso.

manǵuálta 'a cuarto apiece'

„ kuálta 'cuarto.'

manaikólo 'a half-real apiece'

„ saikólo 'half-real.'

manǵáliw 'a cuartillo apiece'

„ áliw 'cuartillo.'

mananalapî 'only four reals apiece'

„ salapî 'four reals.'

MAY.

§ 154. The quasi-verb *may* + its object constitutes in many cases practically a compound noun (cf. § 232).

PAG.

§ 155. This particle is employed to form the verbal abstracts of certain verbal classes (cf. § 144), and to indicate abundance in nouns made with infix-prefix *in* and suffix *an* (cf. § 148).

PAGKA.

§ 156. This prefix forms in general abstract nouns which denote essence, mode of construction, form, etc., of what the root or word to be derived indicates: it may be prefixed to almost any word, root, noun, or adjective, simple or derivative.—e. g.,

pagkadiós 'divinity'	<i>from</i> diós 'God.'
pagkabúti 'goodness, beauty'	„ búti 'goodness.'
pagkakalulúwa 'essence of the soul'	„ kalulúwa 'soul.'
pagkabáhay 'style, build of a house'	„ báhay 'house.'
pagkakaibigán 'mutual love'	„ ka-ibig-án 'love.'

With roots that denote a change of state it indicates the superior limit of the change, e. g.,

pagkalakí 'the height of the tide'	<i>from</i> lakí 'grow.'
pagkalubhá 'the highest point'	„ lubhá 'very.'

These abstract nouns are employed in exclamations either unchanged or with partial or full reduplication of the root, *pagka* in this case having a separate accent viz., *pagká* (cf. §§ 12, 295), e. g., *pagká-búti*, *pagká-bubúti*, *pagká-butibúti*.

PALA.

§ 157. This prefix forms, usually from verbal roots, nouns of agency which generally indicate vices or faults, e. g.,

palainúm 'drunkard'	<i>from</i> inúm 'drink.'
palasumpâ 'curser, swearer'	„ sumpâ 'curse.'
palaanító 'idolater'	„ anító 'idol.'

These nouns may be recomposed with *mapag* and with *ma—in* (cf. § 151, e, f), the meaning being intensified, e. g.,

mapagpalainúm 'great drinker.'
mapalainumín 'continual drinker.'

In connection with the suffix *an*, *pala* forms a few nouns of place, e. g.,

palaasinán 'salt cellar'	<i>from</i> asín 'salt.'
palapandáyan 'smithy'	„ pandáy 'workman.'

PAN.

§ 158. This prefix forms, usually from verbal roots, nouns denoting instruments. The changes mentioned in connection with the preceding prefix *man* (cf. § 153), are usually, though not always, found in nouns of this class, e. g.,

pamálò 'beater'	<i>from</i> pálo 'beat.'
panúlat 'pen'	„ súlat 'write.'

panğámot	}	'scraper' <i>from</i> kámot 'scrape.'
pankámot		
panğáhit	}	'razor' ,, áhit 'shave.'
panáhit		

When it is combined with nouns which already denote instrument, it indicates something used in place of the instrument, being equivalent to *pinaka* (cf. § 101), e. g.,

panwalís 'something such as a branch, etc. used for a broom' *from* walís 'broom.'

SANG.

§ 159. This prefix, which is an abbreviation of the numeral *isá* 'one' with following ligature, viz., *isá-ng*, forms nouns indicating the entirety of that expressed by the word to be derived, e. g.,

sang'áraw	'a whole day, one day' <i>from</i> áraw 'day.'
sangtaón	'a whole year, one year' ,, taón 'year.'
sang-Maynilà	'all Manila' ,, Maynilà.
sang'infiérno	'all hell' ,, infiérno 'hell.'

With 'ten' and its powers *sang* is used in the sense of 'one, a' (cf. § 33).

With names of vessels, receptacles, measures, etc., it gives the added idea of 'full,' e. g.,

sangtapáyan	'a jar full' <i>from</i> tapáyan 'jar.'
sangsalopán	'measure of one ganta' ,, salopán (<i>ditto</i>).
sang'apatán	'measure of four gantas' ,, apatán (<i>ditto</i>).

In some words the suffix *an* is used in connection with *sang*, in others *sang* is prefixed to the root derived with *ka—an*, without adding anything to the meaning, e. g.,

sangbahayán	'all the household' <i>from</i> báhay 'house.'
sangbayanán	'all the town' ,, báyan 'town.'
sangkatawóhan	'all mankind' ,, táwo 'man.'
sangkalupaán	'all the earth' ,, lúpà 'earth.'

SING, KASING.

§ 160. The prefix *sing* is employed in the same sense as the *ka* of equality. The combination of the two, viz. *kasing* is also used in the same meaning. Cf. § 149, e.

TAG.

§ 161. This prefix indicates the time of that which the root signifies, and thus forms the names of the seasons, e. g.,
tag'ulán 'rainy season, autumn' *from* ulán 'rain.'
taglamíg 'cold season, winter' „ lamíg 'cold.'
tag'áraw 'sunny season, summer' „ áraw 'sun.'

TAGA.

§ 162. This prefix is used as follows.

a) With roots and passive stems it forms nouns denoting menial occupations, e. g.,

tagatánod 'shepherd.'

tagapagbantáy 'sentinel, watchman.'

tagapagsáing 'cook.'

b) With a few roots it forms nouns similar to those made with *pala*, e. g.,

tagakáin 'great eater.'

tagatahán 'very lazy fellow.'

c) Prefixed to names of places, certain adverbs of place and *anó* 'what?' it forms nouns denoting an inhabitant or native of the place, e. g.,

taga-Maynilà 'an inhabitant of Manila.'

tagabundók 'an inhabitant of the mountains.'

tagaroón 'an inhabitant of that place.'

tagasaán 'inhabitant of where?'

tagaanó 'inhabitant of what?'

PART THIRD. SYNTAX OF COMBINATIONS.

I. COMBINATION OF WORDS TO FORM PHRASES.

§ 163. Any combination of a word with one or more modifiers which does not form a complete sentence, including words modified by a dependent clause, may be called a phrase. As a phrase is also to be considered the combination of two or more words joined by coordinate conjunctions which do not form a complete sentence.

A noun may be modified by the articles, pronominal adjectives, numeral adjectives, descriptive adjectives, another noun or pronoun in various cases, a prepositional phrase, certain adverbs, an infinitive, or a clause.

A pronoun (including numerals not adverbs) may be modified by an oblique, a genitive, an indefinite dependent nominative, an appositive, an adverb expressing degree, the definite article, and various nominal modifiers.

Descriptive adjectives in the positive degree may be modified by a definite dependent nominative, an oblique or prepositional phrase, an adverb, a dependent infinitive, a pronoun of similarity; the comparative and superlative degree may be followed by the oblique and certain adverbs; adjectives of equality may be modified by the genitive or an adverb of degree: in general an adjective may be used as a noun and take various nominal modifiers.

Those words which express their cases by means of the article when standing alone, regularly express them in the same way when combined with one or more modifiers, except when modified by a demonstrative. The article stands before the combination of word and modifiers.

An adverb may be modified by another adverb, an oblique, or a genitive, and may be preceded by the genitive or oblique of the definite article.

A preposition is modified by its following case; a preposition and its object together form a prepositional phrase; such a phrase may be modified by certain adverbs, and may take the definite article.

A conjunction may be modified by an adverb.

In general in the above, modified and modifier, except all articles but the indefinite, a following genitive, a following oblique and equivalent prepositional phrases and adverbs, and postpositive adverbs, are joined by the ligature; the plural particle *maṅḍá* never takes the ligature before a following word, and thus never causes the shift of the ligature (cf. § 22).

As verbs and interjections themselves practically constitute sentences, their combinations are best considered under the sentence. In general a verb may be combined with its subject, with a dependent case, nominative, genitive, or oblique, with an adverb or adverbial expression, and with a dependent infinitive or dependent clause. An interjection may be used with the various cases or with another interjection.

In the combinations discussed under each part of speech, the part of speech in question is, as a usual thing the word modified, i. e., the essential element of the phrase, but in some cases it was more convenient to discuss the use of certain parts of speech as modifiers, under the section devoted to that part of speech, rather than under the various parts of speech which it modifies. Coordinated words are treated in part under the words coordinated, in part under the connective.

COMBINATIONS OF THE NOUN.

WITH THE ARTICLES AND THE PLURAL PARTICLE.

§ 164. The articles and *maṅḍá* stand before the noun they modify. In general *si* and *siná* are used before names of persons, *ang* before other nouns (cf. §§ 46, 47, 48).

Names of persons may also be modified by the particles *a*, *a-ng*, *pan*, *i*, *ka* (cf. § 23) placed before them, e. g.,

<i>a</i>	}	-María 'the father of Maria.'	
<i>a-ng</i>			
<i>pan</i>			
<i>i</i> -Pédro		'the mother of Pedro.'	
<i>ka</i> -Juán	{	'the elder brother 'the uncle	} of Juan.'

The personal and inclusive articles, the oblique case *sa* of the definite article, and the particles *a*, *pan*, *i*, *ka*, are used without ligature. The *ng* of the nominative and genitive of the definite article, viz., *ang*, *nang*, is the ligature which has become an integral part of the article. The *ng* of *a-ng* seems also to be the ligature.

The combinations of the noun (except names of persons) and its various modifiers are regularly preceded by the nominative of the definite article, viz., *ang*, when they stand as subject of a sentence, or when they are used as predicate to indicate some special person or thing. The article, however, is usually not employed when the noun is modified by a demonstrative (cf. § 165), and may be omitted when the modifier is an indefinite pronominal adjective or a numeral.

WITH THE DEMONSTRATIVES.

§ 165. The demonstratives used adjectively may stand,

- a) before the noun,
- b) both before and after the noun,
- c) after the noun modified by the definite article.

The ligature is always used between the noun and the demonstrative, whether preceding or following, except between a demonstrative in the oblique case and following noun. The demonstrative after the noun has always the nominative form. The oblique case of the definite article is always employed between the oblique case of a demonstrative and following noun, and in (c) the noun must be preceded by the article in all cases. In (a) and (b) the case of the noun is indicated by the preceding demonstrative, in (c) by the article.—e. g.,

- | | |
|----------------------------|------------------------|
| a) itó-ng táwo 'this man.' | iyáng táwo 'that man.' |
| nitó-ng táwo | niyáng táwo |
| dító sa táwo | diyán sa táwo |
| b) itó-ng táwo-ng itó | iyáng táwo-ng iyán |
| nitó-ng táwo-ng itó | niyáng táwo-ng iyán |
| dító sa táwo-ng itó | diyán sa táwo-ng iyán |
| c) ang táwo-ng itó | ang táwo-ng iyán |
| nang táwo-ng itó | nang táwo-ng iyán |
| sa táwo-ng itó | sa táwo-ng iyán |

When the noun is plural, *manḡá* regularly stands directly before the noun in all three constructions, e. g., *ító-ng manḡá táwo*, etc. It may, however, be placed before a preceding demonstrative, e. g., *manḡá itó-ng táwo*.

Forms in which the article precedes the uninflected demonstrative adjective before the noun are also found, e. g.,

ang itó-ng sacramént 'this sacrament.'
sa itó-ng panahón 'for this time.'

Through what is apparently a mistaken division, the genitive is sometimes used after the word modified, instead of the ligature and the nominative, e. g.,

nang bário nitó = nang bário-ng (bário-n) itó 'of this village.'
sa isdá niyán = sa isdá-ng (isdá-n) iyán 'for that fish.'

When a personal name is modified by a demonstrative, the article *si* is usually retained before the noun, though it may be omitted, e. g.,

ító-ng si Pédro-ng itó } 'this Pedro.'
ító-ng Pédro-ng itó }

WITH THE INTERROGATIVES.

§ 166. Those interrogatives which are used as adjectives precede the noun and are joined to it by the ligature, e. g.,

anó-ng bulaklák 'what flower?'
alíng púsà 'which cat?'
iláng anak 'how many children?'
kaníno-ng báhay 'whose house?'

anoanó-ng papél
 anó-ng mangá papél
 mangá anó-ng papél

} 'what papers?'

These interrogatives may be accompanied by the interrogative adverbs *bagá* and *kayâ*, which stand between interrogative pronoun and noun, the ligature being placed after them instead of directly after the pronoun, e. g.,

anó bagá-ng bulaklák,
 alín kayá-ng púsà.

No ligature is used between *ilán* 'how many?' and nouns with prefixed *ka* denoting a single individual or object, e. g.,
ilán katáwo 'how many men?'

WITH THE INDEFINITES.

§ 167. Indefinite pronouns used adjectively usually, but not always, precede the noun, and with the exception of *bálang* 'any, every,' *báwa't* 'each,' take the ligature, e. g.,

sinománg } táwo 'any man.'
 alinmáng }
 ibá-ng táwo 'another man.'
 bálang áraw 'some day.'
 kasáma-ng isamán 'no companion (with a negative).'
 báwa't díla 'each tongue.'
 kauntí-ng túbig 'a little water.'
 marámi-ng isdá 'many fish.'
 marámi-ng damít 'much clothing.'
 salapí-ng kasiyáhan 'money enough.'
 salapí-ng lábis 'too much money.'

The adverbs used to express the idea of 'such' may stand either before or after the noun, being joined to it by the ligature, e. g.,

ganitó-ng óras 'such an hour.'
 táwo-ng ganiyán 'such a man.'

In the expressions for 'same' the demonstrative or adverb with prefixed *ga* may stand either before or after the noun, *din* standing between them and the noun, and taking the ligature, e. g.,

ang ganiyán *ding* kúlay } 'the same color.'
ang kúlay *ding* iyan }

WITH THE CARDINALS.

§ 168. The cardinals precede the noun and are joined to it by the ligature except in the case of nouns with prefixed *ka* which denote a single individual or object, e. g.,

isá-ng táwo 'one man.'

tatló-ng báhay 'three houses.'

ápat na áraw 'four days.'

isá katáwo 'one man.'

ápat kapótol 'four pieces.'

labí-ng isá-ng babáyi 'eleven women.'

dalawá-ng pówo't ápat na kabáyo 'twenty-four horses.'

WITH THE ORDINALS.

§ 169. The ordinals may stand either before or after the noun, being joined to it by the ligature. The cardinal *isá* is sometimes used for 'first' (cf. § 117).—e. g.,

ang ikatló-ng bágay 'the third matter.'

ang kabanáta-ng naúna 'the first chapter.'

ang ikawaló-ng áraw 'the eight day.'

WITH FRACTIONS.

§ 170. The fractional numerals when modifying nouns stand before them and are joined to them by the ligature if the fraction ends in a vowel or *n*, otherwise no ligature is employed, e. g.,

kalaháti-ng kabán 'half a *kaban* (a large measure).'

saikatló-ng kabán 'one third of a kaban.'

saikapát kabán 'one fourth of a kaban.'

Fractions made with *bahági* 'part', have the construction of a noun, e. g.,

ang ikápat na bahági nang tinápay 'the fourth part of the bread.'

tatló nang ápat na bahági nang bágay 'three fourths or the thing.'

WITH DISTRIBUTIVES.

§ 171. The distributives stand before the noun they modify and are joined to the noun by the ligature, e. g.,

tatlotatló-ng taón 'three years at a time.'
ikaikatló-ng áraw 'every three days.'
tigalawá-ng píso 'two pesos apiece.'
tigsangpówo-ng saikápat 'ten reals apiece.'

WITH POSSESSIVES.

§ 172. The prepositive possessive adjectives stand before the noun and are joined to it by the ligature; the postpositive follow without interposition of the ligature. The prepositive forms precede the plural particle *manǵá*.—e. g.,

áking	úlo	}	'my head.'	
úlo	ko			
kaniyá-ng	manǵá	matá	}	'his, her eyes.'
manǵá	matá	niyá		
áming	báhay	}	'our (<i>excl.</i>) house.'	
báhay	námin			

WITH DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

§ 173. These may stand either before or after the noun, the two being joined together by the ligature. The plural is indicated by the plural of the adjective; *manǵá*, however, always precedes the noun: the adverb which expresses the comparative degree stands on the same side of the noun as its adjective. An adjective with following modifier, excepting postpositive adverbs (cf. §§ 192—200), regularly stands after the noun. When the noun is definite, the article precedes the combination of adjective and noun.—e. g.,

mabúti-ng	táwo	}	'good man.'	
táwo-ng	mabúti			
ang	malakás	na	}	'the strong man.'
ang	laláki-ng	malakás		
manǵá	ól'ol	na	}	'mad people.'
manǵá	táwo-ng	ól'ol		

ang mababaít na bátà	}	'the sensible boys.'
ang bátà-ng mababaít		
ang mangǵá mabaít na bátà		
ang mangǵá bátà-ng mabaít		
ang mangǵá mababaít na bátà		
ang mangǵá bátà-ng mababaít	}	'the most savory fruit.'
ang lálo-ng masaráp na búnga		
ang búnga-ng lálo-ng masaráp		

When the noun is the name of a person it is preceded by the personal article. A preceding adjective takes the definite article, the personal article being usually retained after the ligature; a following adjective is similar to an appositive.—e. g.,

si Alexándro-ng dakíla	}	'Alexander the Great.'
ang dakíla-ng (si) Alexándro		

When two descriptive adjectives modify the same noun, they are connected by the conjunction *at* 'and,' and this combination is joined to the noun by the ligature, e. g.,

ang táwo-ng malakás at matápang	}	'the strong, brave man.'
ang malakás at matápang na táwo		

WITH INDEFINITE DEPENDENT NOMINATIVE.

§ 174. a) The nouns *laláki* 'man, male,' *babáyi* 'woman, female,' are used after nouns denoting living things, to indicate the gender (cf. § 50).

b) Nouns denoting material and content or value, stand after the noun they modify and are joined to it by the ligature, e. g.,

salamíng pílak	'silver mirror.'
báhay na bató	'stone house.'
isá-ng bóti-ng álak	'a bottle of wine.'
isá-ng salóp na bigás	'a <i>ganta</i> of rice.'
tapáyang lúpà	'an earthen jar, a jar of earth.'
halagá-ng isá-ng píso	'price of one peso.'

In cases which may denote either material or content, ambiguity is avoided by prefixing *sang* (cf. § 159) to indicate that content is meant, e. g.,

sangtapáyang lúpà 'a jar full of earth.'

c) A noun or the combination of a noun and an adjective, denoting a quality of another, or the class or species to which it belongs, is placed after the noun it modifies and is joined to it by the ligature if the modified noun ends in a vowel, but usually not if it ends in a consonant, e. g.,

mukhá-ng sánto 'face of a saint, saint-like face.'

lóob amá 'father-like heart.'

báro-ng Kastilà 'Spanish shirt.'

dámit Tagálog 'Tagalog costume.'

táwo-ng mabúti-ng asál 'man of good habits.'

táwo-ng marupók na lóob 'man of faint heart.'

d) The nouns in § 146, c, or a combination of a noun with a distributive numeral, may be joined by the ligature to a preceding noun in the sense of 'worth so much apiece,' e. g.,

kandíla-ng sisikolóhin 'candle worth half a real apiece.'

tinápay na sisikapátin 'bread worth a real a loaf.'

libro-ng ticalawá-ng písos 'a book worth two pesos a copy.'

e) The nouns *amá* 'father,' *iná* 'mother,' are joined by the ligature to the name of the first born child placed after them to indicate a genitive relation, e. g.,

amá-ng María 'father of Maria.'

iná-ng Juan 'mother of Juan.'

WITH AN APPOSITIVE.

§ 175. An appositive noun regularly follows the noun it modifies and is joined to it by the ligature. The personal article *si* may be omitted when standing after the ligature, but is usually retained: a common noun in apposition does not take the article unless the ligature is omitted. A title may stand between the proper article and its noun, often without ligature. The appositive is always in the nominative, no matter what the case of the noun it modifies.—e. g.,

ang	}	báta-ng kaniyá-ng alpín 'the boy his slave.'
nang		
sa		
si Juárez		

anluwági 'Juan the carpenter.'

ang áking pinsáng (si) António 'my cousin Antonio.'
si kapitán Fernández 'mayor Fernandez.'
si Pedro, ang anak nang kaapidbáhay mo 'Pedro, your
neighbor's son.'
si Párè Juan 'Father Juan.'
si áli-ng Ilóy 'Aunt Iloy.'

WITH THE GENITIVE.

§ 176. A noun or pronoun not personal (cf. § 172) in the genitive, follows the noun upon which it depends without interposition of the ligature, e. g.,

ang asáwa nang laláki 'the man's wife.'
ang iná nang bátà 'the boy's mother.'
ang amá ni Pédro 'Pedro's father.'
ang búkid niná Juan 'the field of Juan and his family.'
ang mangá anak nang babáyi 'the woman's sons,
daughters.'
ang mangá asáwa nang mangá babáyi 'the women's
husbands.'
ang púsà nang áli ni Aquilino 'the cat of Aquilino's aunt.'
ang báhay nitó-ng táwo 'this man's house.'
ang amá nang lahat 'the father of all.'

WITH THE OBLIQUE AND EQUIVALENT PREPOSITIONAL
PHRASES AND ADVERBS.

§ 177. The oblique case of a definite noun, common or personal, without other modifier, may be used in the sense of a genitive before another noun, to which it is joined by the ligature. The article belonging to the second noun, stands before the oblique.—e. g.,

ang sa báta-ng amá 'the boy's father.'
ang kay Pédro-ng báhay 'Pédro's house.'
ang kaná Artúro-ng búkid 'the field of Arturo and his family.'

The oblique case is used after a noun it modifies without interposition of the ligature, to indicate various case relations, which are usually expressed in English by prepositions, e. g.,

mangá súlat sa áking amá 'letters for my father.'

gamót sa úlo 'medicine for the head.'

pintó sa simbáhan 'door in the church.'

álak sa Kastíla 'wine from Spain.'

saksí sa bagáy na itó 'witness of this thing.'

A noun may be modified by a following adverb of place equivalent to these oblique cases, e. g.,

ang síngaw díto 'the climate here.'

A noun may be modified by a following prepositional phrase, which may be preceded by the ligature, e. g.,

ang balítà tungkól sa pagkamatáy niyá 'the news concerning her death.'

dalitá niyá-ng áwà sa átin 'his suffering for us.'

ang isá-ng laláki na dáti-ng piláy na búhat sa tiyán nang kaniyá-ng iná 'a man crippled from his mother's womb.'

kasalánang lában sa Diós 'a sin against God.'

sa búkid na dáko-ng dágat 'in the field towards the sea.'

WITH OTHER ADVERBS.

§ 178. A noun is modified by the adverbs *namán* 'also,' *lámang* 'only,' which stand after it without ligature, e. g.,

ang bátà namán 'the boy also.'

ang kabanálan lámang 'virtue alone.'

A noun may be modified by certain adverbs employed as adjectives, usually before the noun; the ligature stands as with ordinary adjectives, except with adverbs ending in a consonant not *n* immediately before the noun.—e. g.,

kahápong araw 'the day before.'

saán mang paráan 'some way or other.'

saká-ng araw 'on the day after.'

kahápong hápon 'yesterday evening.'

kangína-ng umága 'this morning.'

ganitó-ng óras 'such an hour.'

tumbás karákot 'a handful for each.'

lubhá-ng táwo 'a very man, a real man.'

biglá-ng sakít 'a sudden sickness, fit.'

WITH AN INFINITIVE.

§ 179. A noun may, in certain constructions, be followed by the modal used as infinitive, the two being joined by the ligature, except when the noun ends in a consonant not *n*, e. g.,

kasabáy gumawâ 'companion in doing.'

kasálo-ng kumáin 'companion in eating.'

búti bapá-ng panoórin 'how beautiful to see!'

búti bapá-ng tikmán 'how pleasant to taste!'

ugáli-ng ngmuyâ 'habit of chewing.'

WITH CLAUSES.

§ 180. A noun may be modified by a relative clause (cf. §§ 311, 1—314). A noun denoting 'reason, cause,' may be followed by a clause introduced by the conjunction *kayâ*, which clause may be regarded as standing in apposition to it (cf. § 334).

WITH COMBINATIONS OF MODIFIERS.

§ 181. An interrogative adjective can not be used in conjunction with a demonstrative or possessive adjective.

Before the noun, the articles, demonstratives, interrogatives, and indefinites stand before all other modifiers; certain indefinites may be preceded by the definite article, the demonstratives, and the interrogatives. An indefinite which modifies another indefinite or numeral precedes it. A prepositive possessive precedes the plural particle and the cardinals and ordinals, which in their turn stand before descriptive adjectives. A postpositive possessive may stand between a descriptive adjective and following noun. An adverb of time used as an adjective may precede a cardinal.

After the noun the postpositive possessives occupy the first position, and a demonstrative precedes a descriptive adjective; a genitive or noun used adjectively follows these modifiers. Oblique cases, adverbs of place and time, prepositional phrases, infinitives, and clauses, generally stand after other modifiers.

The ligature is employed between all the modifiers and the adjacent word except after the articles and *manġá*, the indefinites *bálang*, *báwa't*, and before a postpositive word, a genitive, an oblique case, or equivalent adverb or prepositional phrase, e. g.,

isá-ng kaibígan ko 'a friend of mine.'
 noóng isá-ng áraw 'the other day.'
 bálang ibá-ng táwo 'every other man.'
 bálang ikatló-ng áraw 'every third day.'
 ang kaniyá-ng magandá-ng mukhâ 'her beautiful face.'
 yaóng mahál na táwo 'that noble man.'
 ang ibá-ng manġá manġangálakal 'the other merchants.'
 ang bibíg mo-ng malakí 'your big mouth.'
 ang minamahál ko-ng kaibígan 'my esteemed friend.'
 itó-ng áking púsò 'this heart of mine.'
 anoanó-ng ibá-ng manġá libro 'what other books?'
 ang áking dalawá-ng libro 'my two books.'
 ang bílin nilá-ng yaón 'that command of theirs.'
 sa báhay na iyáng malakí 'in that large house.'
 ang báhay na bató nang amá ko 'my father's stone house.'
 ang sermón nang páre kangína-ng umága sa simbáhan
 'the sermon of the priest this morning in the church.'

COORDINATED NOUNS.

§ 182. Two nouns which in English are joined by the conjunction 'and' take the same construction in Tagalog, except in the case of nouns of relationship with prefixed *mag* (cf. § 152), and names of persons, e. g.,

ang lánġit at ang lúpà 'the heavens and the earth.'
 ang manġá laláki at ang manġá babáyi 'the men and the women.'

When in English a personal name is coordinated with a noun denoting a relative of the person, in Tagalog the noun of relationship is compounded with *mag*, and followed by the personal name in the genitive, e. g.,

ang mag'amá ni Pédro 'Pedro and his father.'
 ang mag'anák ni Juárez 'Juan and his son.'

When the names of both are mentioned, the name of the relative indicated by the noun of relationship is placed before this noun and its dependent genitive, and joined to it by the ligature, e. g.,

si Juárez mag'amá ni Pédro 'Pedro and his father Juan.'
si Pédro-ng mag'asáwa ni Juárez 'Pedro and his wife Juana.'

When in English the two coordinated nouns are both personal names, the first noun takes either the personal or inclusive article and the second follows in the genitive. The two personal names may, however, also be connected by *at* as in the case of ordinary nouns, and this is the most common construction at the present day.—e. g.,

si Pédro ni Juárez	}	'Pedro and Juan.'
siná Pédro ni Juárez		
si Pédro at si Juárez		
si Alfredo niná María 'Alfred and Maria-and-her-family.'		
ang damít niná Adán ni Éva 'the clothing of Adam and Eve.'		

Formerly nouns indicating weights and measures and other nouns which stand to one another in a relation similar to that of whole and part, were coordinated with fractional parts of themselves by means of the numerals with prefixed *mayka* (cf. § 43), the noun expressing the whole being understood, e. g.,

maykalawá-ng saikawaló 'a *salapi* (about \$.25) and a *saikawaló* (= $\frac{1}{8}$ *salapi*) [a *saikawaló* towards the second *salapi*].'

maykalawá-ng saikatló-ng kában 'one and a third *kaban* (a large measure).'

maykalimá-ng { bátà
isá-ng bátà } 'four men and a boy (a boy towards the fifth man).'

COMBINATIONS OF THE PRONOUN (INCLUDING
NUMERALS).

WITH THE OBLIQUE.

§ 183. The article, and certain of the interrogative and indefinite pronouns and numerals, may govern the oblique case. The article + oblique case expresses the idea of 'that of, that on,' etc., e. g.,

ang búhay nang manǵá táwo at ang sa manǵá bátà 'the life of men and that of children.'

ang sa kánan 'that on the right.'

After the cardinals, interrogatives, and indefinites meaning 'some, any,' the oblique case has the force of a partitive genitive, e. g.,

dalawá sa inyó 'two of you.'

ápat sa manǵá táwo-ng itó 'four of these men.'

síno sa kanilá 'which of them?'

alín sa manǵá babáyi 'which of the women?'

ilán sa kanilá 'how many of them?'

alinmán sa dalawá 'any one of the two.'

After indefinite pronouns meaning 'more,' 'less,' the oblique case may be translated 'than,' e. g.,

mahígit sa isá-ng taón 'more than one year (old).'

kúláng sa isá-ng taón 'less than one year (old).'

labí sa pówò 'more than ten, over ten.'

Iba followed by the oblique case means 'different from,' e. g.,

ibá sa manǵá ásal nang manǵá Kastilà 'different from the customs of the Spaniards.'

Ganán is followed by an oblique case in the sense of 'to,' e. g.,

ganán sa ákin 'that which pertains, belongs to me.'

ganán kay Pédro 'that which pertains to Pedro.'

The first of the ordinal series may be followed by the oblique in the sense of 'previous to,' e. g.,

naúna díto 'previous to this.'

WITH THE GENITIVE.

§ 184. Certain pronouns and numerals may govern the genitive.

Lahát 'all' may be followed by the genitive plural of the noun it modifies, e. g.,

ang laháť nang mangá bágay 'all the things.'

Pronouns meaning 'more,' 'less,' besides taking an oblique case in the sense of 'than,' may be followed by a genitive denoting the degree of difference, e. g.,

lábís nang isá-ng taón sa iyó 'older than you by one year.'

kúlang nang sípag sa mangá Amerikáno 'not so industrious as the Americans (less than the Americans with respect to industry).'

Pára, páris, and *gáya*, 'what is like, likeness,' are followed by the genitive of that to which something is compared; after *pára*, however, a common noun, instead of standing in the genitive may be joined to *pára* by the ligature.—e. g.,

gáya nang ibon 'like a bird.'

pára-ng íta 'like a negrito.'

pára nang pílak 'like silver.'

The interrogative *anó* may be followed by the genitive in the sense of 'what relation to?', e. g.,

anó nitó-ng táwo 'what relation to this man?'

anó mo 'what relation to you?'

The ordinals may be followed by a genitive in the sense of after,' e. g.,

ikalawá ko 'the second after me.'

WITH INDEFINITE DEPENDENT NOMINATIVE.

§ 185. Certain indefinite pronouns may be followed by a noun in the construction in § 174.

Pronouns meaning 'more' and 'less' have this construction in the sense of 'more than,' 'less than,' the ligature being usually employed, e. g.,

mahígít na tatló-ng dáan 'more than three hundred.'

kúlang na sangdáang, písos 'less than a hundred pesos.'

For *pára* in this construction cf. § 184.

WITH AN APPOSITIVE.

§ 186. The personal pronouns in any case may be modified by an appositive, which may be a noun, an indefinite pronoun or a cardinal. The appositive stands in the indefinite nominative no matter what the case of the preceding pronoun, and the two are connected by the ligature.—e. g.,

tayó-ng mangá Kastíla 'we Spaniards.'

silá-ng laháť 'all of them.'

kayó-ng tatló 'you three.'

nátíng laháť 'of us all.'

sa átíng laháť 'to us all.'

The pronouns *lahát* 'all,' *kapuwâ* 'both,' may stand without ligature before plural personal pronouns and demonstratives in the sense of 'all of,' 'both of,' e. g.,

lahát silá 'all of them.'

lahát itó 'all of these.'

kapuwâ silá 'both of them.'

WITH ADVERBS EXPRESSING DEGREE.

§ 187. Many pronouns and cardinals may be modified by adverbs of degree and other adverbs expressing degree; post-positives stand after the pronoun without ligature (cf. also § 189); other adverbs take the ligature as in § 178.—e. g.,

kauntí lámang 'only a little.'

síno pa 'who else?'

anó pa 'what else?'

isá lámang 'only one.'

isá pa 'one more.'

ibá pa 'still another.'

lálò pa 'still more.'

pára rin 'just like.'

gay'óng marámi 'so many.'

gay'óng kauntí 'so little.'

tumbás kauntí 'a little for each.'

WITH THE ARTICLE.

§ 188. The possessives, indefinites, and the cardinal, ordinal, and fractional numerals, used as pronouns, are regularly preceded by *ang* when they stand as subject of a sentence, though *ang* is sometimes omitted with indefinites. In the predicate, *ang* is also used if an especially definite person or thing is denoted.—
e. g.,

ang ákin 'mine.'
ang kaniyá 'his.'
ang ibá 'the other.'
ang dalawá 'the two.'
ang laháť 'all.'
ang ikápat 'the fourth.'
ang kalahátì 'the half.'

WITH OTHER NOMINAL MODIFIERS.

§ 189. Many pronouns, including numerals, may be modified by the various nominal modifiers, just like the nouns they stand for; here belong certain compound cardinal numerals (cf. § 33).
—e. g.,

itó-ng dalawá 'these two.'
alíng tatló 'which three?'
itó-ng ikalawá 'this second one.'
itó-ng ibá 'this other.'
dalawá-ng dalawá 'two two's.'
manġá síno 'who (pl).'
manġá ibá 'others.'
bálang ibá 'every other one.'
itó-ng laháť 'all this.'
ang muntí-ng ákin 'the little of mine.'
anomán tungkól sa bagáy na itó 'anything concerning this matter.'
siyá namán 'he also.'
itó namán 'this also.'
akó lámang 'I alone.'

Descriptive adjectives modifying indefinite pronouns meaning 'something, anything,' stand after them as a sort of apposition, e. g.,

anómáng mabúti 'something anything good.'

POSTPOSITIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 190. The postpositive forms of the personal pronouns, viz., *ka* and the postpositive genitives *ko*, *mo*, *niyá*, etc., stand after the word they modify or after a preceding modifier of such a word. When they are used in connection with pronominal subjects they regularly precede them except as in § 336. They also precede, when placed after the word they modify, all following non-postpositive modifiers of that word. For the order when they are used in connection with postpositive adverbs cf. § 205. For examples cf. §§ 172, 221, 229, 234, 245, 253, 269, 270, 340.

COORDINATED PRONOUNS.

§ 191. Coordination of two personal pronouns or a personal pronoun and a noun is expressed by the genitive as in § 182. The first person precedes the second, and the second, the third, and a pronoun precedes a noun; the pronoun which comes first is put in the plural, while the other pronoun or the noun follows in the genitive.—e. g.,

kamí niyá 'he and I.'

kamí ni Andrés 'Andres and I.'

silá nang maéstro 'he and the teacher.'

If more than two persons are referred to, the second pronoun also stands in the plural, while a personal name takes the inclusive article. In this case the expressions are ambiguous; there may be two or more persons in either group, or in both.

—e. g.,

kayó nilá 'thou and they,' 'you and he,' 'you and they.'

kayó niná Juan 'you and J.,' 'thou or you, J. and those with him.'

These involved constructions are yielding to the more natural constructions like the English.

COMBINATIONS OF THE ADJECTIVE.

ADJECTIVES IN THE POSITIVE DEGREE.

With Dependent Case or Prepositional Phrase.

§ 192. The nominative case of a definite noun may be used after an adjective to denote 'with respect to what;' preceded by the ligature these phrases are similar to the relative clauses in § 314.—e. g.

mabúti ang lagáy 'in good condition, health (good with respect to condition).'

malakí ang ólo 'big-headed (large with respect to the head).'

táwo-ng malakí ang ólo 'big-headed man.'

§ 193. Adjectives may be followed by the oblique case in various senses, e. g.,

malápit sa dáan 'near (to) the road.'

maláyò sa Maynilà 'far from Manila.'

marúnung sa paggamót 'learned in medicine.'

mabúti sa pagkain 'good to eat (for eating).'

bulág sa isá-ng matá 'blind in one eye.'

§ 194. Some adjectives may be modified by a following prepositional phrase, e. g.,

matápang lában sa kaáway 'brave against the enemy.'

With Adverb.

§ 195. Adjectives may be modified by various adverbs. The simple negatives *hindî*, *dî*, etc., are used without ligature before an adjective in the sense of the English negative prefixes *un-*, *in-*; these compounds are treated just like simple adjectives.—e. g.,

ang hindî marúnung 'the ignorant person (the unknowing one).'

si Pédro-ng dî marúnung 'ignorant Pedro.'

Other adverbs, with the exception of all postpositive adverbs (cf. § 205), are joined to the adjective by the ligature; the superlative in § 56, b, probably belongs here, one of the adjectives being an adverb.—e. g.,

lálo-ng malakí 'larger (more large).'

lubhá-ng magandá 'very beautiful.'

mataás pa 'taller.'

mabúti-ng mabúti 'very good.'

With Dependent Infinitive.

§ 196. Adjectives may be modified by a following modal used as infinitive, the two being joined by the ligature when the adjective ends in a vowel, e. g.,

madalí-ng gaw'ín 'easy to do.'

malíwag sabíhin 'hard to say.'

maliksi-ng tumakbó 'swift in running.'

kahapishápis alalahánin (alaála) 'sad to relate.'

With Indefinite Pronouns of Similarity.

§ 197. Adjectives may be followed by the pronouns *para*, *páris*, *gáya* 'likeness' in the sense of 'as—as'; the adjective may be joined to *para*, etc, by the ligature. These pronouns are followed by the genitive or noun joined by the ligature according to § 184.—e. g.,

maitím pára-ng íta	} 'as black as a negrito.'
„ páris nang íta	
„ gáya nang íta	

maputí pára nang pílak 'as white as silver.'

maliit pára ko	} 'as small as I.'
„ páris „	
„ gáya „	

mabaít pára ni Pédro 'as intelligent as Pedro.'

magandá-ng pára mo 'as beautiful as you.'

mataás na pára ni Juán 'as tall as Juan.'

ADJECTIVES EXPRESSING COMPARISON.

Comparative and Superlative.

§ 198. The comparative degree of an adjective is followed by the oblique case in the sense of 'than,' e. g.,

magalíng	} {	sa ákin 'better than I.'
lalo-ng magalíng		kay Juán 'better than Juan.'
lalo pa-ng magalíng		diyán 'better than that.'
magalíng pa		sa táwo-ng itó 'better than this man.'
pasubáli-ng magalíng kay Juán 'not so good as Juan.'		

The comparative degree of an adjective may be modified by a preceding numeral adverb in the sense of 'so and so many times as,' e. g.,

makalawá láló-ng malakí 'twice as large.'

The relative superlative is followed by the oblique case in the sense of a partitive genitive, e. g.,

ang magalíng	}	{	sa lahát 'the best of all.'
ang láló-ng magalíng			
ang kagalinggalíngan			

Adjectives of Equality.

§ 199. Adjectives of equality are followed by the genitive of one of the terms of the comparison, e. g.,

karúnung ni Juárez 'as learned as Juan.'

singhába niyón 'as long as that.'

kasingtaás nang kapatíd mo 'as tall as your brother.'

kasinglakí ko 'as large as I am.'

Certain adjectives of equality may also take a genitive or oblique case to denote that with respect to which the comparison is made, e. g.,

kapáris nang dámi nang kaniyá-ng mangá libro 'equal in number to his books.'

kahalimbáwa ni Luisa sa gandá 'the equal of Luisa in beauty.'

§ 200. Adjectives of equality may be modified by the adverbs with prefixed *ga* (cf. § 123), or prepositional phrases

with *ga*. The adverbs and prepositional phrases precede the adjective; the ligature may be used, but is not necessary.—

e. g.,

gabató katigás 'as hard as stone.'

ganitó kahábà 'as long as this.'

gaanó-ng kalakí 'as large as what, how large?'

ga sa ákin kalakí 'as large as I.'

They may also be modified by preceding *magka* adjectives, (cf. § 152) made on the basis of indefinite pronouns of similarity, used as adverbs. The ligature is not employed.—e. g.,

magkapáris karámi	} 'equally numerous.'
magkapára singdámi	

ADJECTIVES WITH NOMINAL MODIFIERS.

§ 201. In general, any adjective may be used as a noun and take various nominal modifiers, e. g.,

ang magalíng 'the good, what is good.'

ang mangá matandá 'the old, aged.'

ang mababaít 'sensible people.'

ang lalo-ng mabúti 'the best.'

COMBINATIONS OF THE ADVERB.

WITH OTHER ADVERBS.

§ 202. Adverbs may be modified by other adverbs. Adverbs of manner which are modified by other adverbs are simply adjectives + adverbial modifier or modifiers used adverbially (cf. § 195).

Certain adverbs may be modified by adverbs of degree, the rule for the use of the ligature being in general the same as in the last case; *tumbás* does not take the ligature.—e. g.,

lalo pa 'still more.'

kangína pa 'just a while ago.'

kaunti lámang 'only a little.'

tumbás minsán 'once for each.'

The optative negative *makâ* may be modified by the adverb *sakálì* 'perchance', viz., *makâ sakálì* 'I hope it is not perchance.'

The consecutive adverbs *alalaóng*., and *sa makatúwid* may be modified by the modal adverb *bagá* 'as it were,' viz., *alalaóng bagá*, *sa makatúwid bagá* 'that is, as it were.'

The consecutive adverb *kayâ* may be modified by various postpositive adverbs, and may be used in connection with *at*, the meaning remaining practically the same, viz.,

kayâ nǣa, nǣani	} 'therefore.'
kayâ nǣa yátà	
kayâ nǣa't	

Adverbs used absolutely, which really constitute the predicate of an elliptical expression may be modified by the various affirmative adverbs, e. g.,

óo nǣa, nǣani 'yes indeed.'
 hindì nǣa 'no indeed.'
 kasí nǣa 'it seems so indeed.'

The modal adverbs *bagá* and *sánà* are used in connection with *kun* 'if' to form certain consecutive adverbial expressions (cf. § 129).

WITH FOLLOWING CASE.

§ 203. Adverbs of place may be modified or defined by a following oblique case, e. g.,

doón sa Espáña 'there in Spain.'
 doón sa inyó-ng báyan 'there in your town.'
 díto sa ámin 'here with us.'

Definite adverbs of time may be modified by the genitive and oblique of nouns of time, e. g.,

búkas nang umága 'tomorrow early, tomorrow morning.'
 kahápon nang hápon 'late yesterday, yesterday evening.'
 kahápon sa gab'í 'yesterday night.'

Certain indefinite adverbs of time may govern a genitive indicating 'time how much,' e. g.,

mamayamayâ nang kaunti 'just a little while afterwards.'

The indefinite adverbs of manner with prefix *ga* may govern a genitive case, being then practically pronouns like *pára*, etc. (cf. § 184), e. g.,

gay'ón ni Pédro 'like, such as Pedro.'

As the predicate of a simple copulative sentence, they may govern the oblique in the sense of 'to be, act so to,' e. g.,

gay'ón sa kanilá 'be thus to them.'

Numeral adverbs may be followed by a genitive in the sense of 'so many times as much,' e. g.,

makapówò nang paláy 'ten times as much unhusked rice.'

WITH THE ARTICLE.

§ 204. An adverb may be preceded by the genitive and oblique of the definite article (cf. § 133).

POSTPOSITIVE ADVERBS.

§ 205. The postpositive adverbs stand after the word they modify, or after a preceding modifier of that word. The compound adverbs *dì sapála*, *dì hámak*, *dì palák*, although they always follow the word they modify, are not to be classed with the other postpositive adverbs. Postpositive adverbs are never joined by the ligature to a preceding word; the three adverbs above mentioned are so joined.

The postpositive adverbs of degree, *pa*, *namán*, *lámang* may modify nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbs, and non-verbal predicates. The others, viz.: the adverbs of time *na*, *móna*; the affirmative adverbs, *nǵa*, *nǵáni*, *din*, *mandin*, *palá*; the interrogative and modal adverbs *bagá*, *kayá*, *wári*; and the modal adverbs *sakálì*, *sánà*, *sa*, *disin*, *narwà*, *daw*, *konó*, *kasí*, *yàtà*, usually modify predicates, but some of them may also modify single words.

When these adverbs are used in conjunction with one another or with other postpositive words, *na* and *pa* precede all postpositive words except *ka*, *ko*, and *mo*; the other adverbs are preceded by *pô* (§ 350, 4); the affirmatives precede the remaining adverbs; *din* precedes *nǵa*, and *nǵa*, *palá*; the affirmative adverbs and *sánà* precede the interrogative adverbs; *bagá* and *kayá* may be used together, either standing first; *namán* stands after the interrogatives. All the adverbs precede the postpositive genitives of the personal pronouns of the third person singular and of the plural, the prepositive genitives of all persons when they stand after an adverb, conjunction or auxiliary at the beginning of a sentence, and the subject personal pronouns when they stand after the whole or part of

the predicate. When used after the word they modify they precede all non-postpositive modifiers of that word. Some of these postpositive adverbs, e. g., *sánà*, *namán*, sometimes violate these rules.

For examples cf. §§ 229, 235, 252, 254, 264, 340.

§ 206. Affirmative postpositive adverbs are usually employed to emphasize the meaning of a predicate, verbal or non-verbal, but they may also be employed to emphasize single words of almost any part of speech, e. g.,

yaón ngã 'that very one.'

itó ngãni-ng sacramént 'this sacrament indeed.'

kayâ ngã 'therefore.'

gay'ón din 'just thus.'

siyá rin 'the same.'

dahíl ngã diyán 'just on that account.'

§ 207. Certain postpositive modal adverbs are used to modify various conjunctions and consecutive adverbs, e. g.,

kayâ ngã yátà 'therefore, just because.'

kun bagá

kun sakáli

kun bagá sakáli

} 'if perchance.'

sa makatúwid bagá 'that is, as it were.'

§ 208. The interrogative adverbs *bagá*, *kayâ* are often used in connection with the special interrogative words, i. e., interrogative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs. They stand after the interrogatives and precede the noun modified by an interrogative adjective.—e. g.,

síno kayâ 'who?'

anó bagá 'what?'

alín bagá-ng báhay 'which house?'

saán kayâ 'where?'

kailán bagá 'when?'

§ 209. The adverb *na* + the ligature, viz. *na-ng*, may be used between any two words to denote repetition. Verbs stand usually in the root form or in the modal or future, all in the sense of a continued present (cf. §§ 412, d; 413, d); the modal may also denote the imperative; other forms of the verb are also employed.—e. g.,

táwo na-ng táwo 'man and man alone.'
 si Santa María na-ng si Santa María 'always Saint Mary.'
 akó na-ng akó 'always I.'
 dasál na-ng dasál 'prays and prays.'
 susúlat na-ng susúlat 'writes continually.'
 sumúlat na-ng sumúlat 'keep on writing.'
 tinatáwa na-ng tinatáwa 'always being laughed at.'

COMBINATIONS OF THE PREPOSITION.

THE PREPOSITION AND ITS OBJECT.

§ 210. The object of a preposition, which may be a noun, pronoun or adverb, regularly follows the preposition, except with prepositions of class (b) governing a personal pronoun, where the preposition is just like the oblique case of a noun modified by a possessive adjective, the genitive standing after it or between its two parts.

Examples of classes (a) and (b) are—

lában sa hárl 'against the king.'
 tungkól sa iyó 'concerning you.'
 dahilán kay Luís 'on account of Luis.'
 bukód dito 'besides this.'
 bukód dito sa bágay 'besides this thing.'
 sa ilálim nang lúpà 'under the earth.'
 sa tapát ninyó 'in front of you (*pl.*).'
 sa haráp ni Agripa 'before, in the presence of Agrippa.'
 sa inyó-ng tabí 'beside you.'

The prepositions of the third class have a variety of constructions.

Kundî, *kundángan* and *dángan* are really conjunctions (cf. § 332), and take the nominative, which is really the subject of an elliptical clause, e. g.,

kundî ikáw 'except you.'

kundángan ang amá mo 'if it were not for your father.'

Holóp, *balì* and *kulang* govern their object directly in the indefinite nominative, e. g.,

holóp ápat 'worth, equivalent to four.'

holóp marámi 'equivalent to many.'
 balí bagyó 'something like a hurricane.'
 kúlang buntót 'without a tail.'
 kúlang pálad 'without fortune, luck.'

Sampón, *páti* and *tolóy* are followed by either the nominative or genitive; *sampón* usually becomes *sampô* before the *n* of a following genitive.—e. g.,

sampón ang ibá-ng bágay 'together with the other thing.'
 akó páti ikáw 'I together with you.'
 kayó páti niyá 'you (*pl.*) together with him.'
 sampô nang mangá matápang 'together with the brave.'
 tolóy nang bayóng 'together with the bag.'

Ganán is followed by the prepositive genitives of the personal pronouns. In the sense of 'as for, for—part' it is preceded by *sa*. The ligature may be used before its object.—e. g.,

ganán ákin 'for me.'
 ganán kaniyá 'for him.'
 sa ganán kaniyá 'as for him.'
 sa ganáng ákin 'for my part.'

Mulâ, *hanggán*, and *dáko* may be joined to their object by the ligature; these three, *búhat* and *dápit* may be followed directly without intervening particle by certain words; all five sometimes govern the oblique case; note *sa mulâ* + genitive, and *sa dáko* + ligature or oblique case; *dápit* may also have the construction of *ganán* with personal pronouns.—e. g.,

mulâ-ng báta't hanggáng katandatandaán 'both child and old man (from . . . to).'

dáko-ng kalunóran 'towards the west.'

mulâ ngay'ón } 'from today.'
 búhat ngay'ón }

hanggán dito 'up to here.'

dáko diyán 'thither (toward there).'

dápit ibabâ 'downward (towards down).'

mulâ sa Maynilâ 'from Manila.'

búhat sa tiyán nang kaniyá-ng iná 'from his birth (the womb of his mother).'

hanggán sa báyan 'up to the town.'

dápit sa iyó 'towards you.'

sa mulâ nang kalalángan nang sangdaigdigan 'from the creation of the world.'

sa dáko doón 'about that time.'

sa dáko-ng ílog 'towards the river.'

dápit iyó 'towards you.'

Certain prepositions may govern a whole clause (cf. § 318).

THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE.

§ 211. Certain prepositional phrases may be modified by various postpositive adverbs, e. g.,

bukód pa díto 'besides this.'

isá-ng hokbô lában namán sa isá 'one army against the other.'

A prepositional phrase not beginning with *sa* may be joined to a preceding modified word by the ligature (cf. § 177 end).

A compound preposition beginning with *sa*, being really the oblique case of a noun, has in general the same construction as the oblique case both in verbal and non-verbal sentences.

A prepositional phrase may be preceded by the article, forming with it a compound relative clause, e. g.,

ang bukód sa lahát 'one who is beside all, unique, special.'

ang tungkól sa bagáy na itó 'what pertains to this thing.'

COMBINATIONS OF THE CONJUNCTION.

WITH ADVERBS.

§ 212. Certain conjunctions may be modified by various adverbs.

Those expressing a contingency may be modified by the adverbs *bagá*, *sakáli* 'perchance,' e. g.,

kun bagá	} 'if perchance.'
kun sakáli	
kun bagá sakáli	
makâ sakáli ,lest perchance.'	

kayâ as a causal conjunction may have the same combinations as the consecutive adverb (cf. § 202).

The conjunctions *kun*, *o* 'or' may be used in connection with the modal adverb *kayâ*, which stands after the whole or part of the second element connected by the conjunction, e. g.,
kun Kastilâ kayâ 'or Spanish.'

WITH OTHER CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 213. Sometimes a compound conjunction is made by using two conjunctions of similar meaning together, e. g.,

kun túwì 'whenever.'

dahilán sapagká 'because.'

kundí bagkús 'but on the contrary.'

Cf. also § 138.

POSTPOSITIVE MAN.

§ 214. The conjunction *man*, subordinate and coordinate, must stand after the first word of the sentence it introduces, taking in general, with reference to the words after the first, the same position as the affirmative adverb *man* (cf. § 205).

PHRASES MADE WITH COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 215. The simple coordinate conjunctions stand between the words or phrases they connect; the two parts of the correlatives precede respectively the two words or phrases connected, except in the case of the postpositives, which follow the whole or part of the connected elements.—e. g.,

amá't iná 'father and mother.'

ang dáan at ang búkid 'the road and the field.'

itó't yaón 'this and that.'

tatló kun ápat 'three or four.'

si Pédro kun si Juán 'Pedro or Juan.'

magín bátà magín matandà 'both young and old.'

magín sa báhay magín sa lansángan 'whether in the house or in the street.'

si Luís man si Juán man 'either Luis or Juan.'

sa itó man sa yaón man 'either for this or for that.'

When the same word modifies both words connected by a coordinate conjunction, it is sometimes omitted with the second, e. g.,

ang lánġit at lúpà 'heaven and earth.'
sa kaluluwá mo at kataw'án 'for your soul and body.'
si póon San Agustín man San Páblo man 'either St. Augustine
or St. Paul.'

For coordinated proper nouns and personal pronouns cf.
§§ 182, 191.

II. COMBINATION OF WORDS AND PHRASES TO FORM SIMPLE SENTENCES.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE IN GENERAL.

§ 216. A simple sentence is a combination of words and phrases consisting of two parts or terms, viz., *a*) the subject, that about which something is said or asserted; *b*) the predicate, that which is said or asserted of the subject.

The subject may be a noun or a pronoun or anything used as a noun, either alone or combined with their various modifiers. The subject stands in the nominative case and is practically always definite, at least in form. All subjects must be preceded by the definite article *ang* except personal names, personal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, or nouns modified by preceding demonstrative adjectives. The article is also sometimes omitted before an indefinite pronoun.

The predicate is of two kinds, viz., non-verbal and verbal.

A non-verbal predicate may be,

- a) the nominative case of a noun, adjective or pronoun;
- b) the oblique case of a noun or pronoun, a prepositional phrase, or an adverb;
- c) a quasi-verb (not *av*); *av* does not constitute a predicate, but simply connects.

Sentences under (a) and (b) will be known as simple copulative sentences.

A verbal predicate is a verb.

These predicates may stand alone or be accompanied by their various modifiers. A nominative predicate is ordinarily indefinite and stands without *ang* unless some special person

or thing is referred to. But *ang* is never used with personal (not including possessive) and interrogative pronouns.

In general either subject or predicate may stand first. When the subject precedes, the two terms must be connected by the particle *ay*; when the predicate precedes, they are juxtaposed without connective particle; the subject may stand between two parts of the predicate.

SENTENCES WITH NON-VERBAL PREDICATE.

SIMPLE COPULATIVE SENTENCES.

§ 217. When the predicate corresponds to an English predicate noun, adjective, or pronoun, it stands in the nominative case. It is regularly indefinite, no article being used, even with possessives, unless the predicate denotes a specified person or thing. Names of persons may sometimes stand without *si*.—e. g.,

silá'y mangá duwág }
mangá duwág silá } 'they are cowards.'

ang matápang ay akó }
akó ang matápang } 'the brave one is I (myself).'

itó-ng laláki ay mataás }
mataás itó-ng laláki } 'this man is tall.'

akó'y magalíng }
magalíng akó } 'I am good.'

ang ákin ay malakí 'mine is large.'

itó'y ákin }
ákin itó } 'this is mine.'

iyáng bináta'y kaibígan ko 'that boy is my friend.'

ang kanilá-ng ngálan ay (si) Ramón 'his name is Ramon.'

ang laháat ay mababaít 'all are sensible.'

§ 218. Nouns and combinations of nouns and adjectives denoting material, composition or quality (cf. § 174) may be used as nominative predicates, e. g.,

ang singsíng mo'y gintó 'my ring is of gold.'

ang lamésa'y káhoy 'the table is (made) of wood.'

akó'y mababá-ng lóob 'I am humble (of humble heart).'

mabúti-ng asál siyá 'he is kind (of good habits).'

itó-ng búnga ay masamá-ng lása 'this fruit has (is of) a bad taste.'

dadalawá-ng bahági ang táwo, ang kataw'án at ang kaluluwá 'man consists of two parts, the body and the soul.'

§ 219. The oblique case of a noun may be used in the predicate in the sense of 'for,' or to denote possession, e. g.,
itó-ng báro'y kay António 'this shirt is Antonio's, for Antonio.'

yaón ay sa táwo-ng itó 'that belongs to, is for this man.'

§ 220. The predicate of a simple copulative sentence may also be a prepositional phrase or an adverb (cf. § 239), e. g.,
akó'y lában sa iyó 'I am against you.'

itó-ng báhay ay tapát sa silángan 'this house faces (is opposite to) the east.'

siyá'y holóp ápat 'he is equal to four.'

dáko-ng kalunóran ang tayó niyaóng báhay 'the outlook of that house is towards the west.'

§ 221. When the predicate consists of two parts, a pronominal subject may be placed between them, the ligature, when it stands between the two parts of the predicate, being shifted as in § 22, e. g.,

bátà ka-ng mabaít 'you are an intelligent boy.'

lubhâ siyá-ng banál 'he is very good.'

lubhâ ka-ng magandá 'you are very beautiful.'

bukód ka sa lahat 'among all you are unique.'

gaanó siyá katandâ 'how old is he?'

lában silá sa Diós mo 'they are against your God.'

§ 222. When the sentence is introduced by an interrogative pronoun or adjective, *ay* is not used, as the interrogative constitutes the predicate. When the subject is any noun not a personal name it must be preceded either by a demonstrative, the article, or the ligature used as the equivalent of the article, e. g.,

síno ka 'who are you?'

sínosíno yaóng mangá táwo 'who are those men?'

síno kayâ iyáng babáyi-ng iyán 'who is that woman?'

kaníno bagá itó-ng báhay 'whose is this house?'

alín sa mangá táwo-ng yaón ang amá mo 'which of these men is your father?'

anó-ng ngálan mo 'what is your name?'

§ 223. The negative of simple copulative sentences is expressed by one of the adverbs *dî*, *dîli*, *indî*, *hindî* 'not', placed before the predicate, e. g.,

ang táwo'y dî mabúti
dî mabúti ang táwo } 'the man is not good.'

When the subject of the negative sentence is a personal pronoun, the negative is placed before it, and the predicate follows without the interposition of *ay*, e. g.,

hindî ka marúnung 'you are not wise.'

hindî silá matatápang 'they are not brave.'

When the predicate of a negative sentence is a noun modified by a possessive pronoun, the postpositive possessive may stand between the negative and the noun, e. g.,

hindî ko ári itó 'this is not my possession.'

hindî ko iná siyá 'she is not my mother.'

THE PARTICLES NA AND WALÂ.

§ 224. The particle *na* and its negative *walâ* followed by the oblique case express the idea of 'to be in a place temporarily;' 'to be in a place permanently, to belong there,' is expressed as in § 409, 1. These particles are usually invariable for person, number, and tense. They constitute the predicate, and *ay* must be employed before them when they are preceded by the subject.—e. g.,

ang báta'y na sa báhay
na sa báhay ang báta } 'the boy is in the house.'

ang páre ay walâ sa simbáhan
walâ sa simbáhan ang páre } 'the priest is not in the church.'

These constructions are also employed to express the possession or non-possession of a definite object; the literal meaning is 'there is to,' 'there is not to.'—e. g.,

ang kabáyo ni Pédro 'y na sa ákin
na sa ákin ang kabáyo ni Pédro } 'I have Pedro's horse.'

ang salapî ay walâ kay Juán } 'Juan has not the money.'
walâ kay Juán ang salapî

When the oblique case is a personal name or personal pronoun, it may denote 'at the house of,' e. g.,

siyá'y na sa ámin 'he is at our house.'

walâ sa kanilâ ang táwo 'the man is not at their house.'

Instead of an oblique case, the adverbs of place *dini*, *dito* 'here,' *doón*, *diyán* 'there' may be used, forming the combinations *narini*, *narito*, *naroón*, *nariyán*, *walâ rini*, etc. Sometimes an *n* is inserted after *na*, e. g., *nandini*, *nandito*; sometimes instead of the adverb, the nominative of the corresponding demonstrative is used, e. g., *nayari*, *naitó*.—e. g.,

naríto siyá 'he is here.'

walâ roón ang áking amá 'my father is not there'.

These forms may be used in connection with a following oblique case; when the subject follows the quasi-verb it may stand between adverb and oblique case, e. g.,

siyá'y nariyán sa iyó 'he is there with you.'

naroón siyá sa ílog 'he is there on the river.'

The subject of *walâ* may stand between *walâ* and the following oblique case or adverb, e. g.,

walâ si Pédro sa báhay 'Pedro is not in the house'.

walâ akó doón 'I was not there.'

§ 225. The particles *na* and *walâ* may be preceded by the article, which in this case is practically equivalent to 'the one who,' 'that which,' 'what,' e. g.,

ang áking báhay ay ang na sa kaliwâ 'my house is the one on the left.'

ang walâ sa kaniyá 'what he has not.'

When the predicate of a sentence is an interrogative pronoun or adjective, the article or equivalent ligature must be used before *na* and *walâ* (cf. § 222), e. g.,

sino ang } na sa báhay 'who is in the house?'
sino-ng }

sino ang nariyán 'who is there?'

ano-ng bulaklák ang na sa kaniyá 'what flower has he?'

kaníno-ng kabáyo ang na sa iyó 'whose horse have you?'

The article is also retained in answering such questions, e. g.,

ang na sa ákin ay ang kabáyo nang amá ko } 'I have my
ang kabáyo nang amá ko ang na sa ákin } father's horse.'

§ 226. 'Where is?' is expressed by *na saán*, *saán naroon*, rarely by *na háan*. The element *an* of *saán* seems to be ultimately identical with *anó* 'what?', hence *saán* means literally 'in what?'.—e. g.,

na saán
saán naroon
na háan } ang inyó-ng amá 'where is your (pl.) father?'

This construction may be employed to express the idea of 'who has?', though this may also be rendered by *na* followed by the oblique of *síno*, e. g.,

na saán kayâ ang libro ko, 'where is, who has my book?'
na sa kaníno bagâ ang kabáyo niyâ 'who has his horse?'

Saán followed by a noun denoting 'place' may be used in its literal meaning 'in what, which,' equivalent to *sa alín*. *Saán* may take the ligature.—e. g.,

na saán
na saáng
na sa alíng } báhay ang iná ko 'in which
house is my mother?'

§ 227. Sometimes *na* + its case is treated as a verb of the *ma* class (cf. § 93). These forms have the same construction as the quasi-verb.—e. g.,

síno-ng naririyán 'who is there?'
saán naroroón ang amá mo 'where is your father?'
ang amá ko'y nasasabáhay 'my father is in the house.'
masasaán bagâ si Pédro 'where will Pedro be?'

§ 228. Instead of *na sa*, *sa sa* is sometimes used, and instead of *na kay* and *na kaná*, *na sa kay* and *na sa kaná*, e. g.,

sa sa kulongán ang ibon 'the bird is in the cage.'
na sa kaná áli ko siyâ 'he is at the house of my aunt
and her family.'

A negative of *walâ* is made by placing a categorical negative before it, viz., *dí walâ*; this is used after *walâ-ng* and followed by the oblique case in a strongly affirmative sense.—e. g.,

walâ-ng dí walâ sa ákin 'I have absolutely everything.'

These quasi-verbs sometimes take an additional oblique case modifying the first, e. g.,

na saán na tayó sa áting paglalakbáy 'where are we now in our journey?'

na sa pagítan na tayó sa áting lakarín 'we are now half way on our journey.'

THE PARTICLES MAY AND WALÂ.

§ 229. The particle *may* and its negative *walâ* are used to express the possession or non-possession of something indefinite. Instead of *may*, its compounds with the adverbs of place *dini*, *dito*, *diyán*, *doón*, viz., *maydini*, *maydito*, *maydiyán*, *mayroón* may be employed: *mayroón* is the most common, meaning simply 'have;' the others have an added idea of locality 'have here,' 'have there.' The noun or pronoun which denotes the possessor constitutes the subject. The thing possessed, which will be spoken of as the object, stands in the indefinite nominative after the particle, except in the case of an expression containing a demonstrative where the genitive is used in the sense of 'some of this,' etc. The particles *may* and *walâ* with their object constitute the predicate, and *ay* must be used before them when the subject precedes. A pronominal subject, the noun *pô*, postpositive adverbs, and various other elements may stand between these particles and their object; for the order cf. §§ 190; 205; 350, 4. *May* is usually employed when the object follows immediately, though *mayroón* may also be used; otherwise *mayroón* is the common form. *Mayroón*, *maydini*, etc., and *walâ* take the ligature before an immediately following object, *may* is without ligature. When one or more words intervene between any of these particles and their object, the ligature is affixed to the word immediately preceding the object; the ligature, however, is omitted before an object containing a demonstrative. The subject *ka* may stand between the object of *may* and a following modifier. The quasi verb may be modified by an oblique case indicating place.—e. g.,

ang táwo'y may isdâ	} 'the man has fish.'
may isdâ ang táwo	

akó'y may báro } 'I have a shirt.'
 may báro akó }
 siyá'y mayroóng ibón 'he has birds.'
 mayroóng kapatíd na babáyi silá 'they have sisters.'
 mayroón akó-ng tinápay 'I have bread.'
 akó'y walá-ng asáwa } 'I have no wife, am unmarried.'
 walâ akó-ng asáwa }
 maydini akó-ng salapí 'I have money here.'
 mayroón pa akó-ng magúlang 'I have still parents.'
 walâ na akó-ng anak 'I have now no son.'
 may kasalánan ka-ng malakí 'are you in mortal sin (have
 you great sin)?'
 walâ siyá nitó 'he has none of this.'
 mayroón siyá nitó-ng haláman 'he has some of these
 plants.'
 kamí ay mayroóng marámi sa báhay 'we have many
 at home.'

§ 230. These particles are also used without subject to express 'there is,' 'there is not,' literally 'it has,' 'it has not,' 'the place in which' stands in the oblique case or is represented by an adverb.—e. g.,

may táwo sa báhay 'there are people in the house.'
 may namáng volcán doón 'there is also a volcano there.'
 mayroóng dalawá-ng pówò 'there are twenty.'
 maydini-ng pálay 'there is rice here.'
 walá-ng táwo sa lansángan 'there is no one in the street.'

§ 231. When the subject of these particles is an interrogative pronoun, it stands first and is joined to the particle by *ang* or the ligature (cf. § 222), e. g.,

sino { ang } mayroóng baríl 'who has a gun?'
 -ng }
 ilán kayâ sa kanilá ang may sangá 'how many of them
 have branches?'

When the object contains an interrogative pronoun, it may stand before the quasi-verb with or without ligature, or it may follow the construction of an ordinary object, e. g.,

anó-ng mayroón ka 'what have you?'
 iláng báhay mayroón siyá 'how many houses has he?'

may ilán na-ng taón ang anák mo 'how many years old is your son (how many years has)?'

§ 232. These particles with their objects may take the article and the plural particle. *May* and its object often constitute practically a derivative noun. *Mayroón* may stand alone with the article.—e. g.,

ang mayroón 'the one who has.'

ang may-anák 'the father (possessing a son).'

ang mangá may-anák 'the fathers.'

ang may-sakit 'the sick man (having sickness).'

ang walá-ng asáwa 'he who is unmarried.'

ang mangá walá-ng sangá 'those that have no branches.'

ang mayroón pa-ng magúlang 'those who have still parents.'

In the oblique case the compounds with *may* denote 'in the vicinity of, near,' e. g.,

sa may-báhay 'in the vicinity of the house.'

sa may-ilog 'near the river.'

These compounds with *may* are treated as nouns and are usually followed by the genitive of the thing possessed, though the oblique may also be used, especially if the object has a verbal idea. The dependent noun is sometimes the same as the object of the particle.—e. g.,

ang may-báhay { nitó
nitó-ng báhay } 'the owner of this house.'

sino ang may-anák nitó-ng bátà 'who is the father of this boy?'

hanggán sa may-habangán nang áming báyan 'up to where the boundary of our town is.'

ang may-anák dito sa bátà-ng itó 'the father to this boy.'

ang may-gawâ sa ákin 'the one who made me.'

§ 233. The superlative form *walá-ng walâ* has the same construction as the simple form except that the ligature is usually omitted after the second *walâ*, e. g.,

walá-ng walâ tungkód ang bátà 'the boy has no stick at all.'

akó 'y walá-ng walâ 'I have nothing at all.'

The adjective *marámi* 'much, many' has sometimes the same construction as *mayroón*, in the sense of 'have much, many,' 'there is much, are many,' e. g.,

marámi akó-ng abála 'I have much to do (much occupation).'

marámi ka-ng salapî 'have you much money?'

marámi bagá-ng flog doón 'are there many rivers there?'

But also—

itó-ng káhoy ay may marámi-ng sangǎ 'this tree has many branches.'

mayróon bagá-ng marámi-ng flog doón 'are there many rivers there?'

THE PARTICLE A 'SAY'.

§ 234. The particle *a* is used before the genitive of a noun or pronoun to express the idea of 'said,' usually in parenthetical phrases. The postpositive genitives of the personal pronouns are employed, *nákin* and *niyó* being used in the first and second person singular, instead of *ko* and *mo*. The postpositive genitive of *sino*, viz., *nino* is also employed.—e. g.,

a-nang Santo-ng Súlat 'say the Scriptures.'

a-ni Pédro 'said Pedro.'

a-nitó-ng táwo 'said this man.'

a-nákin 'say I.'

a-niyó 'you say.'

a-niyá 'says he.'

a-níno 'who says it?'

SENTENCES WITH NON-VERBAL PREDICATE IN GENERAL.

§ 235. For the negative of sentences with non-verbal predicate cf. §§ 223, 224, 229.

For the use of special interrogative words in such sentences cf. §§ 222, 225, 226, 231.

The interrogative of sentences with non-verbal predicate may be indicated simply by the tone of the voice, but ordinarily the interrogative adverbs *bagá* or *kayâ* are employed after the predicate. The predicate or some part of it, usually stands first in the sentence; the interrogative adverbs follow the oblique case or adverb governed by the quasi-verb *na*, but stand immediately after its negative *walâ*; they stand

between *may* and its negative *walâ* and their object. For the position of these adverbs in general cf. § 205.—e. g.,

malakí bagá ang iyó-ng áso 'is your dog large?'

magagandá bagá silá 'are they beautiful?'

mayáman ka bagá 'are you rich?'

na sa báhay bagá ang iná mo 'is your mother in the house?'

na sa iyó bagá ang salapî 'have you the money?'

walâ bagá sa báyan ang párè 'isn't the priest in town?'

walâ bagá sa kaniyá ang damít ko 'hasn't he my clothes?'

may bagá-ng bulaklák ang kapatíd mo-ng babáyi 'has your sister any flowers?'

mayroón bagá-ng marámi-ng isdâ sa ílog 'are there many fish in the river?'

mayroón bagá silá-ng salapî 'have they any money?'

mayroón pa pô kayó-ng iná 'have you still a mother?'

mayroón ka bagá-ng tinápay 'have you any bread?'

mayroón ka pa-ng sakít 'are you still sick (have you still sickness)?'

§ 236. Adverbs of time are used in sentences with non-verbal predicate to indicate tense. They stand either absolutely without connective particle, usually at the beginning or end of the sentence, or they may stand between two parts of the predicate, or at the beginning of a sentence followed by the particle *ay*, the subject, in this last case, usually standing after the predicate: postpositives stand after some part of the predicate.—e. g.,

kahápon ikáw ay mayamán 'yesterday you were rich.'

búkas ikáw ay dukhâ 'tomorrow you will be poor.'

magandá siyá noón, ngay'ón ay pángit 'then she was beautiful, now she is ugly.'

ikalimá-ng áraw ngay'ón nitó-ng linggó 'to-day it is the fifth day of the week.'

nang hápong yaón ay malakí ang siglá sa báyan 'on that evening great was the joy in town.'

kahápon na sa Maynilà siyá 'yesterday he was in Manila.'

búkas naríto ang amá ko 'tomorrow my father will be here.'

kahápon mayroón akó-ng isá-ng mabúti-ng kabáyo 'yesterday I had a good horse.'

búkas mayroón na akó-ng salapí 'tomorrow I shall have money.'

walâ na akó-ng amâ 'I have now no father.'

§ 237. Adverbs of place may stand in simple copulative sentences and sentences containing *may* 'there is' or its negative *walâ*, in the same constructions as adverbs of time. For adverbs of place after *na*, and for their usual construction after *may* and *walâ*, cf. §§ 224, 226, 229, 230.—e. g.,

doón sa inyó-ng báyan ay may mabúti-ng báhay 'there in your town, are there good houses?'

doón sa ámin ay mabubúti ang mangá báhay 'there with us the houses are good.'

Certain adverbs of other classes may also have the same constructions as adverbs of time and place, e. g.,

maráhil búkas ay na sa Maynilâ siyá 'perhaps tomorrow he will be in Manila.'

hálos walâ pa siyá-ng tatló-ng taón 'he is scarcely three years old.'

§ 238. A non-verbal predicate may be modified by the affirmative adverbs, especially in affirmative answers, e. g.,

siyá nã ang duwág 'he is indeed the coward.'

óo, na sa ákin nã ang damít mo 'yes, I have your clothes.'

walâ nã-ng tungkód ang táwo 'the man has no walking-stick at all.'

§ 239. Certain adverbs may stand as the predicate, especially in sentences whose subject is a verbal idea; special interrogative adverbs, except *saán* with quasi-verb *na*, have usually this construction; after a special interrogative adverb, the ligature may be used instead of the article before the subject.—e. g.,

ang pagpások niyá díto ay kahápon 'he entered here yesterday (his entering here was yesterday).'

ganiyán ang na sa kautosán 'thus it is in the law (that which is in the law is thus).'

paanó ang pagkalagáy nang mangá káhoy sa halamánan mo 'how are the trees placed in your garden (how is the placing)?'

saán ang pasimulâ nitó-ng dáan 'where does this road begin (where is the beginning)?'

paanó-ng pangyayári niyán 'how is that possible (how is the possibility of that)?'

paanó kayâ yaón 'how was that (how did it take place)?'

makailán ang lángiis 'how many times (something else) is the oil (worth)?'

§ 240. Certain adverbs may be joined by the ligature to a non-verbal predicate, but they are in this case rather adjectives than adverbs (cf. § 178), e. g.,

tantô mo-ng búkid yaón 'that is my field without doubt.'

ang mag'alam ay paráti-ng pakanâ 'knowledge is always useful.'

§ 241. When the subject of a sentence is of the third person and refers to something that has already been mentioned, it may be omitted. *May* 'there is' (cf. § 230) is of course always impersonal. The object of *may* and *walâ* may also be omitted under the same conditions. The use of the affirmative adverbs is especially frequent in this case. The predicate of simple copulative sentences may be preceded by *ay*, which connects it with the subject understood.—e. g.,

akó ngã 'it is I, I am.'

óo, magandá ngã 'yes (she) is indeed beautiful.'

ákin 'it is mine.'

hindì ngã akó 'it is not I, I am not.'

hindì ka rin 'it is not you either.'

malalakí bagá 'are they large?'

iyó bagá 'is it yours?'

ay ang amá nang bayáw mo 'he is the father of your brother in-law.'

ay sa pinsán mo kayâ 'is it your cousin's?'

na sa báhay '(he) is in the house.'

walâ sa ákin 'I haven't (it).'

na sa iyó bagá 'have you (it)?'

mayroón na-ng pag'úisip '(he) has now reached years of discretion (has now reason).'

óo, mayroón ngã 'yes he has.'

walâ na bagá 'is there no one else?'

óo, mayroón pa 'yes, there is.'

SENTENCES WITH VERBAL PREDICATE. COMBINATIONS OF THE VERB.

THE VERB AND ITS SUBJECT.

§ 242. As in sentences with non-verbal predicate, the subject may stand either before or after the predicate, *ay* being used between the two when the subject precedes. The subject may be omitted under the same circumstances as in sentences with non-verbal predicate (cf. § 241).—e. g.,

akó 'y sumusúlat	}	'I write, am writing.'
sumusúlat akó		
ang báta 'y naglalaró	}	'the boy is playing.'
naglalaró ang báta		
siyá 'y iniíbig	}	'he is loved.'
iniíbig siyá		
sumusúlat 'he (already mentioned) is writing.'		

THE ACTIVE VERB AND ITS OBJECTS.

§ 243. The use of the active and passive is not optional as in English. In any given sentence the voice of the verb depends upon the relative importance of the various elements, the most emphatic idea being made the subject of the sentence. If this is the agent of the action expressed by the verb, the active voice is employed. The object of the active verb is usually indefinite, but it may be definite provided that the principal emphasis still rests on the agent. The object may stand in the genitive or oblique case. Personal pronouns and names of persons are always in the oblique case, and verbs made with *maka* causative regularly govern the oblique case. 'On account of, with respect to' after an intransitive verb is expressed by the genitive. Otherwise, generally speaking, the genitive corresponds to the direct object in English, the oblique to the indirect. The genitive object always, the oblique usually, stands after the verb and its subject; an oblique case may also stand at the beginning of the sentence (cf. § 267). For the construction when the verb takes both direct and indirects objects cf. § 256.
—e. g.,

akó'y sumusúlat } nang libro 'I am writing a book.'
 sumusúlat akó }
 tumáwag ka nang isá-ng bátà 'call a boy.'
 ikáw ay gumúlang } sa mang'a matatandâ 'respect
 gumúlang ka } aged people.'
 akó'y nangginginig nang takót 'I am trembling with (on
 account of) fear.'
 naparoón akó sa ilog 'I went to the river.'
 ikáw ay susungdô nang párè, kami'y hahánap nang gamót
 'you call the priest, we will look for medicine.'
 itó-ng táwo'y magkakamít nang lánġit 'this man will attain
 heaven.'
 ang grácia'y nakabubúti sa kaluluwá 'Grace beautifies
 the soul.'

§ 244. In some idioms the object of the active is placed directly after the verb in the indefinite nominative, forming with it a sort of compound. When the verb ends in a vowel the two are connected by the ligature.—e. g.,

magbalík lóob sa Diós 'turn (your) heart to God.'
 siyá'y naghahánap búhay 'he is earning his living.'
 akó'y magbibigáy aláw sa iyó 'I will let you know.'
 maníra-ng púri 'dishonor (destroy [*sírà*] fame).'
 kumúha-ng hátol 'take counsel.'

THE PASSIVE VERB, ITS AGENT AND OBJECTS.

§ 245. The passive voice is used when the object of the verbal action, or some accessory circumstance is the most emphatic element, and hence the subject, of the sentence. A definite object is usually more emphatic than the agent of the action, hence the passive is regularly employed when the object is definite. Passive constructions are far more frequent than active, in fact they may be said to be the rule, and active constructions the exception; they are usually to be translated by the English active. In general the *in* passive is used when the object of an action towards the agent (e. g., to take), is made the subject; the *i* passive, when the subject is the object of an action away from the agent (e. g., to give), or the

instrument or cause of the action; the *an* passive, when a place or anything regarded as place, stands as subject.

The agent of the passive is put in the genitive, except when it is a noun standing before the verb, which is put in the oblique case. The prepositive and postpositive genitives of the personal pronouns are used with the verb just as with nouns (cf. § 172), the prepositive forms taking the ligature. An agent in the oblique case before the verb, also takes the ligature. A pronominal agent stands next to the verb, and can be separated from it only by certain adverbs. A genitive nominal agent follows the verb. An agent in the third person may be omitted under the same conditions as a subject of the same person (cf. §§ 241, 242). A passive verb may also be accompanied by one or more indirect objects which correspond to English prepositional phrases. When the indirect object of the *i* or *an* passives corresponds to the direct object of the active in English, it stands in the genitive; 'with (of means and instrument)' and 'with respect to' are also expressed by the genitive: 'to,' 'for,' 'in,' 'from,' are expressed by the oblique. A genitive object always follows the verb, an oblique case usually follows but may also stand at the beginning of the sentence (cf. § 267). The order of genitive nominal agent, indirect objects, and the subject when it follows the verb, is not fixed, but in general pronouns precede nouns.—e. g.,

ang libro'y binása ko	}	'I read the book (the book was read by me).'
binása ko ang libro		
ang libro'y áking binása		
áking binása ang libro		
si María ay iniibig ni Luis 'Luis loves Maria.'		
itó'y kay Pédro-ng ginawâ 'this was made by Pedro.'		
ang libro'y hanápin mo nang ilaw 'look for the book with the light (let the book be sought by you with the light).'		
ipanhik mo sa báhay itó-ng mangá ságing 'bring these bananas up to the house.'		
panhikan mo akó niyáng mangá ságing 'bring those bananas up to me (let me be brought to by you with these bananas).'		
ibili mo ang bátà nang kánin 'buy the boy some food.'		

ipagbili mo sa ámin iyáng manǵá manúk 'sell us these chickens.'

binigyán siyá nang bulaklák nang kapatíd mo 'your brother gave him some flowers.'

ilabás mo ang áking salawál sa kabán 'take my trousers out of the chest.'

ang súlat ay hinánap niyá nitó-ng ilaw sa silíd 'he looked for the letter in the room with this light.'

binása itó-ng libro 'this book is the one he (already mentioned) read.'

§ 246. An indirect object which would ordinarily stand in the genitive is sometimes simply joined to the preceding verb by the ligature (cf. § 244), e. g.,

ikáw ay binigyáng panahón (= nang panahón) 'you were given time.'

bigyán mo-ng manǵá ságing (= nang manǵá ságing) 'give some bananas.'

akó'y itináwag na kompisió (=*nang kompisió*) 'a priest was called to confess me (I was the cause of calling for confession).'

CONSTRUCTION OF VERBS MADE WITH PRIMARY SUBSIDIARY PARTICLES.

§ 247. The verbal forms made with the primary subsidiary particles have, with the exception of the emphatic imperatives with *ka*, which have the same construction as the ordinary active imperative, and *pá* (cf. § 250), a passive construction. Passive forms with *ka*, *kapag*, *kapagka*, *pagka*, *pag* regularly stand first in the sentence, and do not admit the definite article; they differ from other passive verbs in taking the logical object in the genitive or oblique. Forms with *ka—an* and *paka* have the same construction and position as other passive verbs.

The forms with *ka* upon partially reduplicated roots are usually accompanied by one or more of the adverbs, *din*, *pa*, *lámang*. They may stand in a simple sentence.—e. g.,

karakating ko pa 'I have just arrived.'

kaaalis lámang niyá 'he has just gone.'

kapagaalis din ni Pédro nang damít 'Pedro has just undressed.'

kapangangáral din nang páre 'the priest has just stopped preaching.'

Or, the sentence in which they stand may be joined to another sentence which indicates a contemporaneous action (cf. § 306).

The forms made with *ka* prefixed to fully reduplicated roots and those with the prefixes *kapag*, *kapagka*, *pagka*, *pag* occur always in this last construction (cf. §§ 307, 308).

The forms made with *ka—an* (a) and (b) stand as the verb of a simple sentence, or of a dependent clause, e. g.,

(a) kapanáwan ko itó-ng linggó 'I shall bear a child this week.'

kaalísan ko na 'I am about to go.'

kun kasulátan na niyá 'when he was about to write.'

(b) katanorán ko ngáyón 'it falls to my lot, it is my turn to be shepherd to day.'

kapagmisahán ko ngáyón 'it falls to me to say mass today.'

The forms made with *ka—an* (c) may stand with the article as the subject of a copulative sentence, or as in § 329, e. g.,

ang kaalísan ko'y kalakásan ni António 'the reason I went was on account of the violence of Antonio.'

Sentences containing forms made with *paka* are, e. g.,

kayó po'y pinakamagúlang námin 'you, sir, are like a father to us.'

pinakamatáy ko si amá 'I believe my father to be dead.'

pakapilákin mo itó-ng damít 'take this clothing in place of silver.'

sino ang pinakapónò ninyó ngáyón 'who acts as your leader today.'

CONSTRUCTION OF THE VERBAL NOUN.

§ 248. The verbal abstract nouns (cf. § 144) have also a passive construction. The agent of the action is put in the genitive, the object in the genitive or oblique according to the construction of the corresponding verb.—e. g.,

ang pagpások ko 'my entering.'

ang pagkakamít nang lánġit 'the attaining of heaven.'

ang paglilihí sa mahál na Vírgen 'the conceiving of the Virgin (by her mother).'

ang paglilihí ni María kay Jesús 'Mary's conception of Jesus.'

CONSTRUCTION OF THE IMPERATIVE.

§ 249. The modal used as imperative stands in the active or passive voice according to the regular rule. The agent of the verbal action may be of any person, singular or plural. In the active this logical agent is made the grammatical subject; in the passive it is the grammatical agent, the subject being the logical object. The construction and order are the same as in the case of the other tenses.—e. g.,

sumúlat tayó	}	'let us write.'
tayó'y sumúlat		
umíbig siyá	}	nang kabanálan 'let him love goodness.'
siyá'y umíbig		
tumáwag ka	}	nang isá-ng bátà 'call a boy.'
ikáw ay tumáwag		
bigyán mo silá	}	nang tinápay 'give them bread.'
silá'y bigyán mo		
paghanápin nilá ang libro	}	'let them look for the book.'
ang libro'y paghanápin nilá		

§ 250. The emphatic active imperative from roots and passive stems is used either absolutely or with following subject, e. g.,

lákad, lákad kayó 'go.'

kúha, kúha ka 'take.'

pagáral, pagáral kayó 'study.'

The impersonal passive imperative stands without agent, and usually, though not always, without subject. It is used of things in the hand or in close proximity.—e. g.,

ábut 'get it.'

tapónan 'throw it.'

bukasí 'open it.'

ábut yaóng kabán na mapulá 'get that red box.'

The emphatic imperative with prefixed *ka* regularly stands first and takes the same construction as the simple active imperative, e. g.,

kaingāt ka 'be very careful.'

katatápang kayó 'be very brave.'

kaiisip kayó 'think well.'

katatágaw kayó sa mahál na Virgen 'call fervently on the Virgin.'

The emphatic imperatives with prefixed *pá* follow the various constructions of the other imperative forms, according as they are regular passive, emphatic active or impersonal passive, e. g.,

pá-hampasín mo siyá 'beat him still more severely.'

pá-lápit, pá-lápit ka 'approach still nearer.'

pá-bigyí 'give him still more.'

THE ARTICLE WITH VERBAL FORMS.

§ 251. Any tense stem may be preceded by the article in the sense of a compound relative (cf. §§ 315—318), and be treated just like a noun. The verbal forms preceded by the nominative *ang* usually constitute the subject of the sentence, but they may also be treated as predicate when the other term of the sentence is definite. Sentences containing such verbs are practically simple copulative sentences; when the subject precedes the predicate, the particle *ay* stands between them. In these sentences the predicate has usually special emphasis. Various elements may stand between the article and its verb.—e. g.,

ikáw ang nagsábi nitó 'you are the one that said this.'
mapálad ang naglilingkód sa Diós 'happy is he who serves God.'

iyáng palakól ang ipótol mo nitó 'cut this with that hatchet (let this hatchet be your cutting-instrument of this).'

ang silíd ang paghanápan mo nang iyó-ng libro 'look for your book in the room (let the room be your searching-place of your book).'

ang hinahánap ko'y isá sa áking manģá kaibígan 'I am looking for one of my friends.'

ang Panģinóong Diós ay ang maghohokóm sa átin 'the Lord God will judge us.'

ang Panginóong Diós ang maghohokóm sa átin 'the one who will judge us is the Lord God.'
 hindi ko naringíg ang sinábi mo sa ákin 'I did not hear what you said to me.'
 mam'in ang áking ngingánggà 'betel is what I am chewing.'
 ang pagkamatáy nang kaniyá-ng iná ang sa kaniyáy nakahápis 'the death of his mother was what made him sad.'
 hindi lahat nang sinasábi sa mangá periódiko ay totóo 'not all that the papers say is true.'
 ang pagsampalatáya sa di natin nakikità 'the belief in what we do not see.'
 siyáy ang anak nang pinatáy nang mangá tulisán 'he is the son of the one who was killed by the robbers.'
 akó'y natutúwà sa sinasábi mo sa ákin 'I am delighted at what you tell me.'

NEGATIVE VERBAL SENTENCES.

§ 252. The negative of sentences with verbal predicate (not imperative) is expressed by the categorical negative adverbs *dì*, *hindi*, etc., placed before the verb. The sentence usually begins with the negative. When the verbal form is preceded by *ang* the negative stands between *ang* and the verb. The verb precedes a nominal subject or a nominal agent in the genitive, but when the subject or agent is a personal pronoun, it regularly stands between negative and verb. A preceding pronominal subject in this case is not joined to its verb by the particle *ay*. Certain postpositive adverbs and the noun *pô* may also occupy this position. When one or more words intervene between the negative and the verb, the word immediately preceding the verb sometimes takes the ligature.—e. g.,

hindi ko naaaláman 'I don't know.'
 ang hindi mo nasasakúpan 'that which does not concern you.'
 dì ko masábi sa iyó 'I can't tell you.'
 hindi ko nãa naaaláman 'I don't know indeed.'
 indí rin niyá naaaláman 'neither does he know it.'
 hindi pa dumating ang kaibígan mo 'your friend has not yet arrived.'

hindî pa nãa ungmali's 'he has not gone yet.'

hindî ko pa binása 'I have not yet read it.'

hindî ka-ng kumuha nang pilak 'you did not take any silver.'

dî na akó-ng uulî 'I won't do it again (now).'

§ 253. The imperative is negated by the adverb *huwág* placed before it. Pronominal subjects and agents, and post-positive adverbs stand between the two, the word directly preceding the verb taking the ligature.—e. g.,

huwág ka-ng paroón 'don't go there.'

huwág mo-ng sabihin 'don't tell.'

huwág niyá-ng gaw'in 'he must not do it (let it not be done by him).'

huwág matakot 'let him not fear.'

INTERROGATIVE VERBAL SENTENCES.

§ 254. The interrogative of verbal sentences is expressed as in sentences with non-verbal predicate (cf. § 235). In affirmative interrogative sentences the verb usually stands first. In negative interrogative sentences, the negative adverb comes first as in negative declarative sentences, and pronouns and postpositive adverbs stand between the negative and the verb according to § 252. For the position of the interrogative adverbs in general cf. § 205.—e. g.,

ininúm bagá nang may-sakit ang gamót 'did the sick man take (drink) the medicine?'

tináwag bagá akó 'did anyone call me (was I called)?'

nahihiyâ ka bagá 'are you ashamed?'

binása mo bagá ang mangá libro 'did you read the books?'

dungma'ting na bagá ang parê 'has the priest arrived (already)?'

aalís ka na bagá 'are you going now?'

hindî mo bagá nakikítâ yaóng madilím na úlap 'don't you see that dark cloud?'

hindî ka bagá-ng nahihiyâ 'are you not ashamed?'

§ 255. When a sentence containing a verb is introduced by an interrogative pronoun or adjective, the interrogative is made the predicate, and the verb takes the article according

to § 251, or the interrogative and verb are joined by the ligature. The verb stands in the active when the interrogative is the agent of the action, in the passive when it is the object. In other words the English nominative of an interrogative is represented by interrogative + active; the objective case, or the interrogative after a preposition, by interrogative + passive.

—e. g.,

síno ang tungmatáwag sa âkin 'who is calling me?'

síno ang hinahánap ninyó 'whom are you (*pl.*) seeking?'

síno kayâ ang ilalagáy ko dito sa pintoáng itó 'whom shall I place at this door?'

síno ang itinatanóng mo 'for whom are you inquiring?'

síno ang binigyán mo nang súlat 'to whom did you give the letter?'

anó ang ginawâ niyá 'what did he do?'

anó kayâ ang kinakáin mo 'what are you eating?'

alíng káhoy ang aakyátan mo 'which tree will you climb?'

sinó-ng nagsábi sa iyó 'who told you?'

anó-ng ibinibigáy mo sa mangá báta-ng iyán 'what are you giving those boys?'

anó-ng iginagawâ mo nitó 'with what did you make this?'

In answering such questions, the person or thing inquired after is made predicate, the verb taking the article, e. g.,

akó ang tungmatáwag sa iyó 'I am calling you.'

VERBS WITH BOTH DIRECT AND INDIRECT OBJECTS.

§ 256. In sentences which contain both a direct and an indirect object of the verbal action, the verb is usually put in the *i* or *an* passive even though the object of the action is indefinite, e. g.,

bigyán (§ 81) mo silá nang tinápay 'give them bread.'

ibinilí ko silá nang búnga 'I bought them some fruit.'

tuturóan niyá kami nang dáan 'he will show us the road.'

Sometimes an active construction is used, the direct object usually preceding the indirect. When the indirect object is a personal pronoun it may precede the direct.—e. g.,

kumúha ka nang dalawá-ng libro sa librería 'take two books from the library.'

akó'y humihingî nang táwad sa inyó 'I ask pardon of you (*pl.*).'

In sentences of this kind which begin with an interrogative pronoun or adjective, active and passive are used as in § 255, e. g.,
sino ang nagbigáy sa iyó nang mangá libro 'who gave you the books?'

sino ang binigyán mo nang súlat 'to whom did you give the letter?'

THE VERB WITH ADVERBS AND ADVERBIAL EXPRESSIONS.

§ 257. A verb may be modified by adverbs of all classes. The position of the adverb is very free, it may stand at the beginning or end of a sentence, between subject and predicate, or between the verb and its other adjuncts. The combination of the verb with negative and interrogative adverbs has already been discussed (cf. §§ 252—255). Adverbs and the verb are combined in a number of ways.

§ 258. The ligature is often used to connect verb and adverb, when the adverb directly precedes the verb and ends in a vowel or *n*, or when it directly follows a verb. If one or more words intervene the ligature is shifted as in § 22 (cf. also § 262).—e. g.,

mabúti bagá akó-ng sumúlat 'did I write well?'

masamá ka-ng sungmúlat 'you wrote badly.'

maáno-ng lumakí ka sa kabanálan 'may you increase in righteousness.'

si Pédro'y lubhá-ng nagpapakasakit 'Pedro works very hard.'

itó'y bágo-ng ginawâ 'this is just made.'

isinúlat na marikit 'it was elegantly written.'

itó'y gaw'in ninyó-ng mahúsay 'do this well.'

sumunód ka-ng palági sa mangá útos niyá 'always follow his commandments.'

§ 259. Excluding genitives 'used as adverbs of time (cf. §§ 118, 133), *nang* is employed only before adverbs standing after the verb as the equivalent of the ligature in the preceding paragraph, e. g.,

hampásin mo siyá nang malakás 'beat him soundly.'

hindi na akó uupô nang ganitó 'I will not sit down in this fashion.'

§ 260. Many adverbs when they stand at the beginning of a sentence, may be joined to what follows by the particle *ay*. The subject in this case stands usually though not necessarily, after the verb.—e. g.,

kahápon ay nabásag ang palayók 'yesterday the pot broke.'
mamayá'y namamalisbís ang manǵá lúhà 'then the tears flowed forth.'

diyáta'y sabihin mo sa kanilá 'well then, tell them.'
kun minsán ay nanǵingisdà akó sa manǵá ílog 'sometimes I fish in the rivers.'

§ 261. Many adverbs may be used absolutely without connective particle. So usually the interrogatives *saán*, *kailán*, *bákit*, *anó't*, adverbs ending in a consonant immediately before the verb, and adverbs beginning with *sa* after the verb.—e. g.,

makâ mahólog ka 'may you not fall.'
sakâ bantayán mo-ng maígì ang silíd 'then watch well the room.'

saán tumitirá kayó 'where do you live?'
kailán aalis siyá 'when will he go?'
bákit nagsábi ka sa ákin 'why did you tell me?'
anó't hindi ka lungmalákad nang matúlin 'why don't you walk fast?'

tíkis ginawâ 'it was done purposely.'
tíla naporoón 'I think he went.'
kayâ ñga arálan mo ang hindi marúnung 'therefore teach the ignorant.'

tábì akó'y daráan 'with your permission I will go.'
áking hinaliháw sa lóob at sa labás 'I looked for it within and without.'

§ 262. Adverbs at the beginning of a sentence may take the same construction as the negatives *hindi*, etc. (cf. § 252). Adverbs ending in a consonant, which do not take a ligature when directly preceding the verb, may have the ligature in this construction. When the ligature is used, this construction is identical with certain forms of that in § 258.—e. g.,

madalás akó-ng palóin 'I am often beaten.'

díto ka umupô 'sit down here.'
 saán kayó tungmitirá 'where do you live?'
 kailán siyá aalís 'when will he go?'
 kailán ka-ng paparito 'when will you come?'
 makailán ka-ng ungmunít sa iyó-ng manǵá magúlang
 'how often have you robbed your parents?'

§ 263. Certain adverbs may be used as the predicate or as a modifier of the predicate of a simple copulative sentence, the verb they refer to standing as the subject with the article; in the first case the verbal noun of action is more frequent than the finite verbal forms (cf. § 239).—e. g.,

ang isinagót sa kaniyá ay ganoón 'he answered him thus.'
 akó muna ang minúra niyá 'he insulted me first.'

§ 264. Postpositive adverbs stand after the verb without ligature; when some adverbial modifier precedes the verb, they are placed between this modifier and the verb. For the relative order of postpositive adverbs and personal pronouns, etc., cf. § 205.—e. g.,

matotólog na akó 'I am going to sleep.'
 akó'y magaáral sánà 'I would study.'
 lumában ka nawà sa lahát na tuksó 'may you resist all temptations.'
 darating daw si Pédro 'they say that Pedro will come.'
 darating yátà 'I think he will arrive.'
 maglagáy namán kayó díto nang isá-ng lagári 'put a saw there also.'

§ 265. A noun or pronoun in the indefinite nominative may be used after a verb in the adverbial construction described in § 258, as a sort of apposition to the subject, in the sense of 'as, like' or of what is in English a second object after a verb of 'making,' 'calling,' etc.; the idea of 'as, like' is emphasized by using, instead of the simple noun, one of the indefinite pronouns of similarity *pára* etc. followed by the noun (cf. § 275).—e. g.,

siyá'y pumások na kasáma nilá sa témplo 'he entered the temple with them (as their companion).'
 silá'y nanggakakasáma-ng lahát sa isá-ng lugár 'they were all gathered together in one place.'

si Matías ay nahalál na apóstol 'Matthias was chosen apostle.'
anó bagá ang ginagawá-ng salapî 'what is money made
of (is made into money)?'

tináwag ang halamánang yaón sa kanilá-ng sarili-ng wíka
na Aceldamá 'that field was called in their own
language, Aceldama.'

inaáři katá-ng (cf. § 350, 2) anak 'I treat you like a son.'
ginagamít namáng pára-ng sustantívo 'it is used also as
a substantive.'

§ 266. A verb may be modified by a prepositional phrase, which
may stand after the verb in the same general position as the
oblique case (cf. §§ 243, 245), or at the beginning of a sentence.
In the latter case the prepositional phrase is usually followed by
ay as in the adverbial construction described in § 260.—e. g.,
umuulán dáko-ng Maynilà 'it is raining in the direction
of (towards) Manila.'

humátol alinsunód sa ótos 'give sentence according to
the law.'

sungmópoy sa haráp nang hokóm 'he presented himself
before the judge.'

dahílán kay Luis ay ñi kitá-ng (§ 350, 2) hinampás 'I did
not beat you on account of Luis.'

mulà sa Lilio'y napasa-Maynilà (cf. § 409, 3) 'from Lilio
he went to Manila.'

sa lóob nang limá-ng áraw ay namatáy 'within five days
he died.'

§ 267. An oblique case, especially of a verbal noun, may
also stand at the beginning of a sentence and take the same
construction as a prepositional phrase, e. g.,

sa pagtakbó niyá ay natisod sa isá-ng bató 'while running
(in his running), he stumbled against a stone.'

sa bagáy na itó kayó ang sinasakdalán ko 'therefore (for
this reason) I take refuge in you.'

VERBS WITH DEPENDENT VERBS.

§ 268. Verbal forms may modify preceding verbs as adverbs
in the construction described in § 258; the voice of the two
verbs may be different.—e. g.,

gaw'in mo-ng mag'isá 'do it alone.'

itó'y gagaw'in mo-ng paupô 'you must do this seated.'

§ 269. Verbs may govern a following verb of the same voice, either in the same tense form or in the modal used as infinitive. If the dependent verb follows directly and the governing verb ends in a vowel or *n*, the two are joined by the ligature, but if the governing verb ends in any other consonant, the ligature is usually omitted. If one or more adjuncts of the two verbs intervene between the two verbs, the ligature is regularly affixed to the word immediately preceding the dependent verb. The common subject or agent of the two active or two passive verbs is expressed only once, standing with the governing verb. The personal pronominal subject of a dependent verb may stand immediately before the ligature connecting the two verbs. These dependent infinitives are closely similar to noun and purpose clauses (cf. §§ 320, 325). When the subjects or agents of the two verbs are different, or when they stand in different voices, the dependent verbs are to be so considered, except with impersonal auxiliaries (cf. § 270).—e. g.,

akó'y tungmakbó-ng umalís 'I hastened to go.'

kinúsa-ng ginawâ ni Pédro itó 'Pedro did this voluntarily (was willing and did).'

akó'y paroroóng kukuha nang ákin 'I shall go there to take what is mine.'

pinapanood at pinapanood at inuúlit niyá-ng panoórin
'he looks at it and looks at it and looks at it again
(repeats to look).'

hindî ka bagá-ng nahihiyá-ng mahigâ sa ganitó-ng óras
'are'nt you ashamed to lie in bed at such an hour.'

paroroón sa báyang karatig na dumálaw sa mangá kaibígan
'they are going to the next village to visit their friends.'

ang bóo-ng báyan ay nakitâ siyá-ng lumákad 'the whole
town saw him walk.'

siyá'y nagpipilit mások 'he endeavors to enter.'

§ 270. An important class of verbs that govern another verb in the infinitive are those which correspond to the English modal auxiliaries 'will,' 'would,' 'should,' 'can,' 'must,' etc. They are viz.,
ibig 'will, want.'

ayáw 'be unwilling, not to want.'

dápat 'ought, be proper, suitable.'

súkat 'should, deserve, be able.'

mangyári 'be able.'

marúnung }
maálam } 'know how.'

kailánġan 'be necessary, must.'

All except sometimes *mangyári* (cf. § 68) are invariable for tense. *Ibig*, *kailánġan*, and sometimes *ayáw*, have the construction of passive verbs; the others (including *ayáw* in most cases) are usually to be regarded as having the same subject as the dependent verb, i. e., as being in the same voice as the dependent verb; sometimes they are to be considered as impersonal verbs, governing either voice. The rules for the ligature are the same as in the preceding paragraph.—e. g.,

ibig ko-ng umalís 'I want to go.'

ayáw akó-ng kumáin 'I don't want to eat.'

ayáw sumunód 'he will not obey.'

dápat nġa-ng gumálang sa mangá matatandâ 'it is right to respect the aged.'

hindí ka dápat bumuwís 'you ought not to pay tribute.'

hindí mangyári-ng lumuwás sa Maynílà ang kapatid ko
'my brother can not go down to Manila.'

hindí akó marúnung bumása 'I don't know how to read.'

súkat ka-ng hampásin 'you deserve to be beaten.'

kailánġan ko-ng ipaháyag 'I must show it.'

hindí kailánġang sabihin 'it is not necessary to tell it.'

ibig ko siyá-ng makità 'I wish to see him.'

ibig mo akó-ng pautánġin nang salapî 'will you lend me
some money?'

súkat bagá siyá-ng parusáhan 'ought he to be punished?'

hindí siyá súkat parusáhan 'he should not be punished.'

ang mangá pinsán mo'y dápat gantihín 'my cousins should
be rewarded.'

QUASI-VERBS WITH DEPENDENT VERBS.

§ 271. The quasi-verbs *may* and *walâ*, which are used to express the possession of something indefinite (cf. § 229), are

also employed before a verb in any tense form, active or passive, as a sort of auxiliary to indicate that the subject of the verb is indefinite. The verb and its subject constitute the object of the particle, the verb being really a participle agreeing with its subject, to which it is regularly joined by the ligature. Sometimes, however, the article is used instead of the ligature under the influence of the construction of the independent verb. When the subject has the meaning of the indefinite pronouns 'anything,' 'something,' 'anyone,' 'someone' it is usually not expressed. When the verb is active, the particle stands without subject and has an indefinite meaning as in § 230. When the verb is passive the agent of the action becomes the subject of the quasi-verb. The rules for the use of the ligature between the quasi-verbs and their object, and for the position of their subject, are the same as in § 229.—e. g.,

may táwo-ng nagnákaw } 'there was a man who robbed,
may nagnákaw na táwo } a robber.'

may siyá-ng pinatáy na táwo 'he has killed a man (he has a killed man).'

mayroón kayó-ng hinahánap 'are you (*pl.*) looking for anyone, anything?'

mayroón siyá-ng sinábi 'did he say anything?'

mayroón akó-ng gagaw'in 'I have something to do.'

may pinatáy ka-ng táwo 'have you killed anyone?'

may akó-ng sasabihin sa iyó-ng isá-ng bágay 'I have a certain matter to tell you.'

walâ akó-ng sinábi 'I said nothing (have not anything said).'

walâ silâ-ng ibilí 'they have not wherewith to buy (instrument-of-buying).'

walâ akó-ng sasabihin 'I have nothing to say.'

walâ ka-ng damít na isimbá 'you have no clothes to go to mass in (mass-going clothes).'

walâ siyá-ng ginawá-ng kasalánan sa iyó 'he has not committed any offence against you.'

walâ kayó-ng makikità ang isá mang goló 'you will not see any disturbance at all (even one disturbance).'

§ 272. The quasi verb *na* is sometimes used as a sort of auxiliary before verbs denoting position, e. g.,
 naroón nakaluhód siyá sa may-altár 'he is kneeling (having knelt down) near the altar.'

III. DIFFERENT KINDS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

SENTENCES CONTAINING A NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE.

§ 273. A noun or pronoun often stands absolutely at the beginning of a sentence in the nominative case, its relation to the other words in the sentence being indicated by an article or pronoun (italicized words in examples) which refers back to it. The absolute case takes the adverbial construction in § 260, except when it is followed directly by an interrogative pronoun, in which case the two are joined by the ligature.—e. g.,

kayó nang anák mo'y mabúti bagá *ang* lagáy 'you and your son, are you well (is *the* condition good)?'

ang magasáwa kailán man ay hindi dápat *silá*-ng magáway 'husband and wife should never quarrel.'

ang talagá-ng manggunḡúsap ay minulán *niyá* ang salitâ nang ganitó 'the one appointed to speak, began his speech thus.'

siyá-ng sino *ang* nḡálan 'he, what is his name?'

si Pédro-ng sino *ang* pamagát 'Pedro, what is his nickname?'

SENTENCES CONTAINING AN INDEFINITE ELEMENT.

§ 274. The indefinite character of a noun is regularly indicated by the construction of the sentence. A predicate noun in a simple copulative sentence is usually indefinite, e. g.,

bátà ka-ng mabáit 'you are an intelligent boy.'

kayó'y mangḡá dúwag 'you (*pl.*) are cowards.'

When the subject of such a sentence is a verbal form with the article (cf. § 251), the predicate denotes class or species, e. g.,

táwo ang gungmawâ nitó 'this is the work of man.'

ang bibilhin ko'y isdá 'I am going to buy fish.'

An indefinite subject, introduced in English by 'there is,' is expressed by the object of *may* and *walâ* (cf. § 230).

An indefinite object of the action of a verb is expressed by the direct object of an active verb (cf. §§ 243, 244), or the object of the *i* or *an* passives (cf. §§ 245, 246), or by using the auxiliaries *may* and *walâ* before the verb (cf. § 271).

The indefinite article is used with nouns in these constructions when the idea of individuality is to be emphasized, e. g.,
itó'y isá-ng káhoy 'this is a tree.'

may isá-ng hári 'there was a king.'

magpanáog ka nang isá-ng upóan 'bring down a chair.'

may akó-ng sasabíhin sa iyó-ng isá-ng bágay 'I have a certain matter to tell you.'

A subject consisting of an indefinite pronoun or a noun modified by the indefinite article or an indefinite pronominal adjective, although indefinite, regularly takes the article, e. g.,

ang lahát ay mabubúti 'all are good.'

ang isá-ng taón ay may iláng araw 'a year has how many days?'

nagsisipások bagá sa simbáhan ang marámi-ng táwo 'are many people entering the church?'

Sometimes, however, *ang* is omitted, e. g.,

isá mang táwo'y dí pinagnakáwan nitó-ng libro 'I did not steal this book from any body.'

isá man sa ámin ay hindi nagugútum 'not one of us is hungry.'

báwa't isá-ng táwo ay mayroón damít na saríli 'each man has his own clothes.'

isá-ng iták ay isinúgat mo sa kaniyá 'you wounded him with a knife.'

SENTENCES CONTAINING A COMPARISON.

SIMILARITY.

§ 275. The idea of 'like, as' is expressed by the indefinite pronouns of similarity, *pára*, *gáya*, etc.; followed by the thing likened in the same construction as in § 184, or by an indefinite adverb of manner governing the genitive (cf. § 203). These

phrases may constitute the predicate of a simple copulative sentence, or they may stand as adverbial elements in a sentence with verbal predicate.—e. g.,

akó'y pára mo 'I am like you.'

siyá'y gáya nang ibon 'he is like a bird.'

gay'ón ni Pédro si Juán 'Juan is such a one as Pedro.'
ginagamít namáng pára-ng sustantivo 'it is used also as a substantive.'

patawárin mo kami nang áming mangá utang pára nang pagpatáwad námin sa nangagkakaútang sa ámin 'forgive us our debts as we forgive our debtors (as our forgiveness to our debtors).'

A predicate of this sort in a simple copulative sentence may also be expressed by the prefix *ga* compounded with the word with which the comparison is made, or by the preposition *ga* and its object, e. g.,

gabató ang lóob mo 'your heart is like stone.'

ang paníki ay ga sa isá-ng ibon 'the bat is like a bird.'

COMPARATIVE.

In General.

§ 276. Sentences containing a comparative idea are of various kinds. According to the mutual relation between the terms of the comparison, it may be a comparison of

- a) equality,
- b) superiority,
- c) inferiority.

According to the character of the comparison, it may be—

- a) Qualitative, comparison of two or more persons or things with reference to a common quality.
- b) Quantitative, comparison of two or more persons or things with reference to number or quantity, or of two or more agents with reference to the quantity of the same thing, which they both possess or act upon.
- c) Adverbial, comparison of the manner in which two actions are performed.

- d) Verbal, comparison of two verbal ideas, or of a verbal and a nominal idea with reference to some quality.
- e) Comparison of sentences.

In some of these comparisons, the number of times one term exceeds another in a certain respect is expressed.

Qualitative Comparison.

§ 277. The comparison of equality is made by using an adjective in the positive degree followed by *pára*, etc. (cf. § 197), or one of the combinations of adjectives of equality (cf. §§ 199, 200), as the predicate of a simple copulative sentence, the subject of which is one term of the comparison, e. g.,

siyá'y mabaít pára ni Pédro 'he is as intelligent as Pedro.'

itó-ng babáyi ay magandá-ng pára mo 'this woman is as beautiful as you.'

si Pédro'y karúnung ni Juán 'Pedro is as learned as Juán.'

itó'y singhába niyón 'this is as large as that.'

ikáw ay kasinglakí ko 'you are as large as I.'

gabató katigás itó-ng káho'y 'this wood is as hard as stone.'

When the two persons or things compared stand together in the subject, the *sing*, *magka*, or *magkasing* adjectives, or the *ma* adjectives modified by preceding *parapára* 'equally,' are employed. When more than two are compared, the reduplicated forms of these adjectives may be used.—e. g.,

singhába itó-ng dalawá 'these two are equally long.'

singtataás silá 'they are equally tall.'

ang manǵá bátà ay magkasingdúnong 'the children are equally wise.'

ang manǵá bátà nang amain ko at ang sa manǵá áking pinsán ay magkakapáris nang taás 'my uncle's children are as tall as those of my cousins.'

parapára-ng mabúti silá 'they are equally good.'

§ 278. The comparison of superiority is made by using the comparative degree of an adjective followed by the oblique case of the inferior term of the comparison, as the predicate of a simple copulative sentence, the subject of which is the superior term, e. g.,

si Pédro'y marúnung kay Juan 'Pedro is more learned than Juan.'

itó'y lalo-ng magaling diyán 'this is better than that.'
mataás pa akó sa iyó 'I am taller than you.'

§ 279. The comparison of inferiority is usually not employed; instead of saying 'he is less intelligent than you,' the thought is ordinarily expressed by the comparison of superiority, viz., 'you are more intelligent than he.' It may, however be expressed by putting the inferior term in the subject, and using as predicate either the comparative degree of inferiority followed by the oblique of the superior term, or the indefinite pronoun *kulang* 'less' followed by the genitive of the noun indicating the quality, and the oblique of the superior term.—e. g.,

si Pédro'y pasubáli-ng marúnung kay Juan 'Pedro is less learned than Juan.'

ang manḡá Tagalog ay kulang nang sípag sa manḡá Amerikáno 'the Tagalogs are less industrious than the Americans (less with respect to industry).'

Quantitative Comparison.

§ 280. The mode of expressing the comparison of equality here is similar to that employed in qualitative comparison. Either adjectives of equality derived from the root *dámi* 'quantity, number' are used, or other adjectives of equality in conjunction with this root.—e. g.,

ang manḡá iták ay kasingdámi nang manḡá panúlat 'there are as many knives as pens (the knives are as numerous as the pens).'

mayroón kayâ silá-ng tinápay na kasingdámi nang álak (tinápay na kapáris nang alák ang dámi [cf. § 314]) 'have they as much bread as wine?'

mayroón bagá siyá-ng sapíng kapáris nang dámi nang kanilá-ng médias 'has she as many shoes as stockings?'

ang kapé at ang sa ay magkasingdámi bagá 'is there as much coffee as tea?'

ang salapí nang áking amáin at ang sa áking amá ay magkapáris karámi 'my uncle has as much money as my father.'

§ 281. The comparison of superiority is made by placing the inferior term in the oblique case after a pronoun meaning 'more,' or a noun modified by a pronominal adjective of the same meaning, e. g.,

ang manḡá Amerikáno 'y lálò pa-ng marámi sa manḡá Tagálog 'the Americans are more numerous than the Tagalogs.'

ang anluwági ay may lálò-ng marámi-ng pákò sa pamokpók 'the carpenter has more nails than hammers.'

mayroón siyá-ng lálò-ng túbig (lálò pa-ng túbig) sa álak 'he has more water than wine.'

ang manḡá magsasaká'y mayroón lálò-ng báka sa manḡá tagabáyan 'the countrymen have more cattle than the townspeople.'

ikáw'y mayroón lálò pa-ng pílak sa ákin 'you have more silver than I.'

nḡay'ó'y mag'iinúm akó nang mahígit pa sa áking iniinúm sa bóò ko-ng búhay 'today I am going to drink more than I ever drank in my whole life.'

§ 282. The comparison of inferiority may be expressed by making the inferior term subject, and using as predicate the pronouns *kulang* 'less' or *alangán* 'insufficient, wanting,' followed by the oblique of the superior term; these pronouns may also be modified by the genitive of *dámi*.—e. g.,

ang manḡá laláki ay kulang nang dámi sa manḡá babáyi 'there are fewer men than women.'

ang manḡá pamokpók niyá'y kulang sa manḡá pákò 'he has not so many hammers as nails.'

ang kayamánan nang manḡá Tagálog ay alangán sa kayamánan nang manḡá Amerikáno 'the wealth of the Tagalogs is less than that of the Americans.'

Comparison of Adverbial Ideas.

§ 283. Adverbial comparison is expressed by the comparative forms of the adverbs of manner modifying the verb which indicates the action, and governing the second term just as if they were adjectives, e. g.,

nagbibili ang mangá Insík nang lálo-ng múra sa ibá-ng mangá mangangalakal 'do the Chinese sell cheaper than other merchants?'

bakit ang kapatid mo'y hindi nagsasalitâ nang lálo-ng magaling nang wika-ng inglés 'why doesn't your brother speak English better.'

Comparison of Verbal Ideas.

§ 284. Verbal ideas are compared by using the verbal nouns of action or the modals as the two terms in ordinary qualitative comparison; or one of the terms is made the subject of a verb modified by an adverb expressing comparison, and the other stands in the oblique case; or one term stands as infinitive after a verb, the other in the oblique case. One of the terms may be represented by a pronoun.—e.g.,
ang paglákad ay lálo-ng mabúti sa pagtakbó 'walking is better than running.'

mabúti ang maglákad sa mangabáyo 'it is better to walk than to ride on horse-back.'

lálo-ng naibig nang Diós itó sa mag'ayunál 'God prefers this to fasting.'

ibig ko pa-ng mamatáy sa magkasála sa Diós 'I would rather die than sin against God.'

Other Comparisons.

§ 285. For the comparison of sentences cf. Comparative Clauses (§ 326). A comparison in which the number of times one thing exceeds another is given, is expressed by comparative words modified by numeral adverbs (cf. § 198), or as in § 408, 6.

SUPERLATIVE.

§ 286. The relative and absolute superlatives may be used both attributively and predicatively, e. g.,

siyá'y ang maliít sa lahát 'he is the smallest of all.'

ang rósa'y ang karikitdikítan sa lahát na bulaklák 'the rose is the most beautiful of all flowers.'

síno sa kanilá ang lálò-ng maliksí 'which of them is the most active?'

ang manggá'y ang búnga-ng masaráp sa lahát na búnga 'the mango is the most savory fruit of all fruits.'

iyáng báhay ay lubhá-ng malakí 'that house is very large.'

ang katam'istam'isáng Virgen ay iná natin 'the most sweet Virgin is our mother.'

silá'y mangá mahál na mahál na laláki 'they are most noble men.'

The oblique case depending on a relative superlative may stand at the beginning of a sentence in the adverbial construction in § 260, e. g.,

sa mangá anluwági ay ang lálò-ng marúnung si Pédro 'of the carpenters, Pedro is the best (wisest).'

When the question is asked as to which of two persons is superior in a certain quality, the names of the two persons stand first in the above construction, either in the oblique case of the combination described in § 182, or both in the genitive connected by *at*, e. g.,

kay Pédro ni Juán } { alín ang maliksí 'of Pedro and
ni Pédro at ni Juán } { Juan, which is the most active?'

§ 287. The absolute superlative adverb 'most' is expressed by *lálò* used as verbal modifier; it may govern the oblique case.—e. g.,

anó ang lálò mo-ng hinahanḡaán 'what do you admire most?'

síno bagá ang iníbig mo-ng lálò sa lahát 'whom do you love most of all?'

§ 288. A sort of absolute superlative idea is expressed by *may* and *walâ* followed by nouns with prefixed *ka* meaning 'equal' (cf. § 149, e), or *ikalawá* 'second,' as object; that with respect to which the comparison is made stands in the genitive when it directly follows the object, but it may be put in the oblique when the subject intervenes.—e. g.,

walâ siyá-ng kapára 'he has no equal.'

yaóng bulaklák ay walá-ng kapantáy nang gandá 'that flower has no equal in beauty.'

may kapára kayâ si Luís sa (*or* nang) dúnung 'has Luis any equal in knowledge?'

walâ siyá-ng ikalawá nang tápang 'he has no second in courage.'

Instead of these nouns like *kapára* adjectives of equality followed by the genitive of that which is compared may be employed, e. g.,

walá-ng kabúti níong babáyi 'there is no one as good as that woman.'

An absolute superlative idea is expressed by the noun *sakdál* 'pith, essence', followed by a noun in the construction in § 174, or by the genitive, e. g.,

siyá'y sakdál kabanálan 'he is the essence of goodness.'
ang sakdál nang línis 'the purest.'

COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE VERBS.

§ 289. Comparative and superlative ideas are also often expressed by verbs which have a comparative or superlative meaning, e. g.,

lungmalálò ang kabanálan ni María sa kay Juána 'María's virtue surpasses (that of) Juana.'

humigít kumulang 'more or less (be it more, be it less).'
ang asáwa ko'y lungmulubhá sa kaniyá-ng sakít 'my husband's sickness is worse.'

anó-ng pinakamalakí sa laháat nang kasamáan 'what is to be considered the greatest of all evils?'

lungmalabí siyá sa dalawá-ng pulgada 'he exceeds by two inches.'

NEGATIVE SENTENCES.

§ 290. In negative sentences in general, the predicate usually precedes the subject, but the subject may stand first if it is specially emphasized, e. g.,

itó'y hindî mabúti 'this is not good.'

ang párè ay walâ sa simbáhan 'the priest is not in the church.'

iyá'y dî ko ginawâ 'I didn't do that.'

§ 291. The negative of simple copulative expressions and declarative statements with verbal predicate is indicated by

the categorical negatives *dì*, *indì*, *hindì*, *dili* before the predicate (cf. §§ 223, 252).

The negative of the quasi-verbs *na* and *may* is *walâ*, which stands in the place of *na* or *may* and not in addition to them (cf. §§ 224, 229).

The prohibitive negative is *huwág* (cf. § 253).

The optative negative is *huwág* or *makâ*, *bakâ* (cf. § 298), or is expressed by the modal of certain verbs without negative adverb (cf. § 389, 398, d).

For the absolute negatives cf. § 126.

The negative of purpose clauses is usually *huwág*, though the categorical negatives are also sometimes employed (cf. §§ 317, 325). A negative after other conjunctions is indicated as in simple sentences; *kun* in connection with *dì* may form one word, viz., *kundi* or be separated by other words, viz., *kun . . . dì*.

The negative indefinite pronominal expressions 'no one,' 'nothing,' 'no,' are rendered according to § 31.

The negative adverb 'never,' and the negative correlative conjunction 'neither—nor,' are expressed respectively by *kailán man* 'ever,' and *man—man* 'either—or,' in connection with a negative, e. g.,

ang magasáwa kailán ma'y hindì dápat silá-ng magáway
'husband and wife should never quarrel.'

kailán pa man ay huwág ka-ng magsinonggaling 'never
tell a lie.'

akó man siyá man ay hindì rin 'it is neither he nor I.'

The adverb *din* in connection with the negatives has the force of 'either, on the other hand,' e. g.,

hindì ko nãa kapidbáhay at hindì ko rin kababáyan 'he
(already referred to) is not my neighbor, nor is he
my countryman either.'

walâ akó-ng iná at walâ rin áko-ng amá 'I have no
mother, neither have I a father.'

On the negative *dì* in questions cf. § 293; on *dili* as the second part of a double question cf. § 304.

INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

§ 292. These are of two kinds, viz.:

- 1) simple interrogatives of declarative statements.
- 2) sentences introduced by an interrogative pronoun or adjective (cf. § 28), by a special interrogative adverb (cf. § 127), or by nominal or verbal derivatives of these pronouns or adverbs (cf. §§ 145, b; 162; 407, 2; 408; 409, 1, 9).

In interrogative sentences in general, the predicate usually precedes the subject, but the subject and the other elements of the sentence may stand first when they are especially emphasized. The interrogation may be expressed simply by the tone of the voice in sentences of the first class, but the indefinite interrogative adverbs *bagá*, *kayâ* are usually employed; negative sentences are made interrogative in the same way as affirmative sentences; the adverbs *bagá*, *kayâ* are also frequently used in sentences of the second class. For the regular construction of simple interrogative sentences cf. §§ 235, 254; for sentences containing some special interrogative word cf. §§ 222; 225; 226; 231; 239; 255; 261; 262; 353; 354; 362, 13; 376; 407, 2; 408; 409, 1, 9.

§ 293. The conjunction *at* 'and' may stand at the beginning of an interrogative sentence, especially when another question has preceded, e. g.,

mayroón pa kayó-ng magúlang 'are your parents still living?'

at mayroón pa kayó-ng kapatíd 'and have you any brothers?'

An element other than the predicate may stand first when it is specially emphasized, e. g.,

ang púsà mo-ng babáyi ay maputí (*bagá*) 'your tabby-cat, is she white?'

siyáy kababáyan mo bagá 'is he (*already referred to*) your countryman?'

kayó nang kapatíd mo-ng babáyi ay mayroón bagá-ng damít 'you and your sister, have you clothes?'

at ang lahat ay may mangá asáwa 'and all (*referring to persons already mentioned*) are married?'

at ang pangálan nitó-ng babáyí ay sínó 'and this woman's name is what?'

at ang kasáma mo'y tagasaán kayâ 'and your comrade, where is he from?'

itó-ng gamót na itó'y súkat bagá-ng makaginháwa sa may-sakit 'will *this* medicine be able to relieve the sick man?'

at yaón ay kaníno-ng anák 'and that one, whose child is he?'

at itó-ng damít ay magkanó 'and this clothing is how much?'

ang isá-ng buwán ay mayroón kayá-ng iláng araw 'a month contains how many days?'

ang báro'y saán ko hahanápin 'where will you look for the shirt?'

doón sa inyó-ng báyan ay may mabúti-ng báhay 'in *your* village are there any fine houses?'

at amá ay mayroón pa pô bagá 'and how about your father, have you still one?'

kay Pédro ni Luís ay alín ang maliksí 'of Pedro and Luis, which is the more active?'

The adverbs *bagá* and *kayâ* may sometimes stand after a subject at the beginning of a sentence instead of after the predicate, e. g.,

ikáw bagá'y Tagálog 'are you a Tagalog?'

siyá bagá'y daraláwin ko araw'araw 'shall I visit him every day?'

ang Diós bagá'y walá-ng hanggán 'is God eternal?'

The particle *wári* indicates that a negative answer is expected, e. g.,

akó wári kapuwâ mo walá-ng baít 'I am not without sense like you, am I?'

The particle *ay* may stand before some interrogative adverbs and pronouns at the beginning of a sentence, e. g.,

ay bákit ayáw siyá 'why doesn't he want to?'

ay at di ka nagkumpisál 'why haven't you confessed?'

ay anó ang salapí 'what about the money?'

The negative *di* may stand at the beginning of an interrogative sentence in the sense of 'is it not so that?', e. g.,

dî hindî 'is it not so that it is not?'

dî kun bagá sakál ikáw isinasalitâ nang dî magalíng,
akó ang tungmatangól sa iyó 'is it not so that
whenever you are maligned, I defend you?'

The absolute interrogatives may stand alone or after an affirmative sentence, e. g.,

paroón ka, haniá 'go there, do you understand?'

iyáng táwo'y kaibígan mo, hindî ganoón 'this man is
your friend, isn't he?'

On the elliptical use of *pa* in a question which expects a negative answer cf. § 333.

For double questions cf. § 304.

For dependent interrogative sentences cf. § 334.

EXCLAMATORY SENTENCES.

§ 294. An exclamatory sentence may consist of a simple interjection (cf. § 139) or of an interjection combined with other words. The most important of these combinations are the following.

Abá 'alas' is followed by the genitive in the sense of 'for,' and by an oblique case to indicate that on account of which the misfortune comes, e. g.,

abá ko 'alas for me!'

abá mo 'alas for you!'

abá ko sa iyó 'alas for me (who am thus) on your account!'

The repeated form *abá na-ng abá* takes the oblique instead of the genitive, e. g.,

abá na-ng abá sa ákin 'alas, alas for me!'

Salámat 'thanks!' takes the genitive of the person thanking, the oblique of the one thanked, e. g.,

salámat ko sa iyó 'I thank you.'

Salámat 'welcome!' is usually followed by some form of the verb *dumating* 'arrive,' e. g.,

salámat sa pagdating mo
salámat at dumating ka } 'welcome!'

Manaá 'behold!' is followed by the nominative case, e. g.,
manaá ang bangǎw 'behold the foolish one.'

Narito 'behold!' governs a noun clause (cf. § 321).

Ay and *oy* are used before the vocative of a noun or pronoun
cf. § 49.

Bapá and *ayá* are used principally in connection with other
exclamatory expressions. They may stand alone or in com-
bination with following *a*; *bapá* precedes *ayá*.—viz., *bapá, ayá,*
bapáa; ayáa, bapá ayáa, bapáa ayáa.

§ 295. Those exclamatory expressions which in English,
contain a noun modified by an adjective, e. g., 'A beautiful
night!' or 'how beautiful is the night!' are generally rendered
by a noun with following genitive, the noun representing what
is in English the adjective, and the genitive, what is in English
the noun: those expressions which in English contain an infinitive
depending on an adjective, e. g., 'how beautiful to see!' are
similarly rendered by noun plus following infinitive (cf. § 179).

The nouns used in these exclamations are abstracts of the
root form, or with the derivative particles *ka, ka—an, or pagká*
(cf. §§ 149, g; 150, b; 156); *págká* has separate accent. These
nouns may have partial, in the case of *págká* also full, redup-
lication of the root, in order to make the exclamation more
emphatic, or when the following genitive is plural.

These nouns may stand in the indefinite nominative or be
preceded by the interrogative adjective *anó*, or the nominative
or oblique of the definite article. One or more of the inter-
jections *sí, bapá, ayá* are often used with these nouns: *bapá* is
more used by men, *ayá*, by women; both are falling into
disuse. The particle *a* may be suffixed to these particles or
may stand at the end of the expression. The particles *ay, oy*
may be used at the end of an exclamatory expression.—
e. g.,

lakí ayáa 'how large!'

búti bapáa 'how fine!'

búti ayáa nang lánġit 'how beautiful is the heaven (oh,
beauty of the heaven)!'

bubúti ayáa nilá 'how beautiful they are!'

tam'is ayá niyán a 'oh how sweet that is!'

dámi bapá nitó (a)	}	'how much this is!'
dámi bapá ayáa nitó		
karámi nitó		
sa dámi nitó		
sa dámi ayáa nitó		
sa gagandá ayáa nang lánġit 'how beautiful is the heaven!'		
si kagagalít ayáa ni António 'how angry António is!'		
si katatampalásan ayáa nang anak ni María 'how insolent is Maria's child!'		
si búti ayáa nang lánġit 'how beautiful is the heaven!'		
katatapánġan nilá oy 'O, what strength they have!'		
pagká-búti nitó ay 'how beautiful this is!'		
búti bapá-ng panoórin 'how beautiful to see!'		
anó-ng dámi nitó 'what a quantity of this!'		
anó-ng dikít niyá 'how beautiful she is!'		
anó-ng pagká-rikít dikít nang manġá bulaklák sa halamánan mo 'how beautiful are the flowers in your garden!'		
ang taás niyoóng báhay 'how high that house is!'		
ang liksí ni Luis 'how agile Luis is!'		
ang kapangyarihan nang Diós 'how mighty God is!'		
karunúnġan mo 'how learned you are!'		
pagká-galíng nitó 'how good this is!'		
pagká-luwáng nang dágat 'how wide the sea is!'		
pagká-tataás nióng manġá káhoy 'how high those trees are!'		

§ 296. Various other constructions similar to the English are also used. Adjectives of equality, and those made with prefixed *ka* from fully reduplicated roots (cf. § 149, e, f) are used with an exclamatory meaning similar to that indicated in English by 'how!'—e. g.,

karámi-ng táwo 'so many, how many men!'
 kaibig'ibig si Juána 'how amiable Juana is!'
 o táwo-ng salamátin 'oh lucky man!'
 o gaáno katam'is sa lóob ko 'oh how sweet to my heart!'

For exclamatory sentences containing *palá* cf. § 374.

§ 297. The following are the most important asseverative expressions in addition to the absolute affirmatives (cf. § 125), e. g.,
 matáy 'by my life.'

pisánan 'I hope I may die.'

muksá kami-ng mag'anák 'may I and my child be consumed.'

saksí ko ang Diós 'as God is my witness.'

saksí ko ang Sánta Cruz 'as the Holy Cross is my witness.'

In maledictions the verb stands either in the modal or preterite, e. g.,

kánin ka nang buáya 'may the crocodile eat you!'

lamónin ka nang lúpà 'may the earth swallow you up!'

tinamaán ka nang hánġin 'may the wind blast you!'

tinukâ ka nang áhas 'may a snake bite you!'

DESIDERATIVE SENTENCES.

§ 298. A desiderative meaning is given to a sentence by the adverbs *nawâ*, *maáno*, *kahimanwári* 'would that, may,' used in connection with the modal: *nawâ* is postpositive and has generally the same relative position with regard to pronouns and other adverbs as the affirmatives *ngã*, etc; *maáno* and *kahimanwári* stand at the beginning of a sentence, *maáno* being joined to what follows by the ligature.—e. g.,

lumában ka nawâ sa lahát na tuksó 'may you resist all temptations.'

loóbin nawâ nang Diós 'God grant.'

maáno-ng lumakí ka sa kabanálan 'may you grow in goodness.'

maáno-ng sumúlat kayó 'would that you would write.'

kahimanwári makamtán mo ang lánġit 'would to God you may attain heaven.'

The negative is expressed by *makâ*, *bakâ*, or by *huwág* in connection with one of the affirmative desiderative adverbs, before the modal, e. g.,

makâ mahólog ka 'may you not fall.'

maáno-ng húwag mo-ng gaw'in iyán 'please don't do that.'

The verb 'to be' in desiderative sentences is expressed affirmatively by *siyá*, negatively by *huwág* modified by a desiderative adverb; after *huwág* the place of the verb may be taken by an indefinite adverb of manner.—e. g.,

siyá nawâ 'so be it, amen.'

huwág nawá-ng gay'ón 'may it not be so.'

IV. COMBINATIONS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

IN GENERAL.

§ 299. Two simple sentences may be combined to form compound and complex sentences. A compound sentence consists of two sentences of the same kind or rank. A complex sentence consists of two sentences, one of which is modified by the other. The component simple sentences of a compound sentence are called members, those of a complex sentence, clauses, viz., the principal or independent clause, and the dependent or subordinate clause.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

IN GENERAL.

§ 300. The members of a compound sentence may be connected by coordinate conjunctions, or by the particle *ay*, or may stand in juxtaposition without connective.

MADE WITH COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 301. The coordinate conjunctions, when simple, stand between the two members; when correlative, one part before each member, except in the case of postpositives, the two postpositive parts of which must follow respectively some portion of the two members. The construction of the various members does not ordinarily differ from that of simple sentences, but cf. § 335.—e. g.,

ang ibá'y maririkít at ang ibá'y pángĭt 'some are pretty and some are ugly.'

paroón man dĩ man paroón 'he may go or not.'

nayaóng mahigâ nayaóng magbánĝon 'now he lies down, now he gets up.'

siya'y nagaáral nang inglés at ungmaáral nang tagálog 'he is learning English and teaching Tagalog.'

huwág ka-ng malumbáy bagkús maniwálà ka sa Diós 'do not be sad, but trust in God.'

dì ko siyá tináwag kundî siyá'y áking kinauwáyan 'I did not call him but I nodded to him.'

§ 302. Sentences containing a compound element (cf. § 215) may be regarded as compound sentences with a portion of one member omitted, e. g.,

maglagáy kayó rito nang isá-ng lagári at nang isá-ng kíkìl 'put here a saw and a file.'

sa itó man sa yaón man ay hindi magalíng 'it is good neither for this nor for that.'

ang báhay námí'y hindî marikít kundî mabúti 'our house is not beautiful but good.'

mainít bagá o malamíg ang túbig sa dágat 'is the water in the sea hot or cold?'

§ 303. The conjunction *at* is often used to introduce a sentence which gives a reason for the preceding statement, where, in English, 'for,' or no conjunction is employed; it is often practically a causative conjunction, equal to 'because.'—e. g.,

marikít bagá ang iyó-ng bárò? hindít masamá 'is your shirt pretty? No, it is ugly.'

matandá na bagá? hindít bátà pa 'is he old? No, he is still young.'

hindî akó makaluwás sa Mayníla't akó'y may sakít 'I can't go down to Manila, for I am sick.'

akó'y hinampás at akó'y tungmánan 'I was beaten because I ran away.'

The conjunction *at* may also be used to introduce a sentence which indicates the purpose of a preceding action, e. g.,

akó'y paroroón at magsisimbá 'I am going there to attend mass.'

akó'y paroroó't tatawágin ko si António 'I am going to call Antonio.'

§ 304. The two parts of a double question are connected by *kun* or *o* 'or,' *bagá* or *kayâ* being used with either or with both parts, e. g.,

arawáraw kayâ kun bálang ikalawá-ng áraw 'was it everyday or every other day?'

mainít bagá o malamíg ang túbig sa dágat 'is the water in the sea hot or cold?'

samantála ka-ng nagsisimbá ay nagpílit ka-ng magbóo nang iyó-ng lóob sa Panginóon Diós, kun nalibáng ka kayá-ng tikís sa ibá 'while you were at mass did you take care to give your complete attention to God, or were you diverted voluntarily to something else?'

masákit kayá ang paggawá mo-ng maghápon kun may ibá ka kayá-ng dahilán 'were you working hard the whole day or had you any other reason?'

'Or not' as the second part of a double question is expressed by *díli*, e. g.,

babáyad siyá, díli 'will he pay or not?'

pariríto ka, díli 'will you come or not?'

MADE WITH AY.

§ 305. Two sentences may be connected by the particle *ay*, becoming respectively the subject and predicate of a simple copulative sentence. Such sentences are best considered as compound, though the meaning is usually that the action of one verb is contemporaneous with that of the other.—e. g.,

naglalakád kamí'y naulanán (cf. § 398, g) 'as we were going along, we were overtaken by the rain.'

nagogótom na akó'y walá-ng apóy sa kalán 'I am hungry and there is no fire on the hearth.'

at pagkasábi nang mangá bágay na itó, siyá'y nakikítà nilá ay siyá'y itinaás 'and after saying these things, while they were looking at him, he was taken up.'

This construction is especially common with the verbal forms made with the primary subsidiary particles; cf. the following paragraphs.

§ 306. Sentences containing verbal forms with subsidiary particle *ka* upon partially reduplicated roots stand before another sentence to which they are usually connected by *ay*, in the sense of 'to have just, hardly—when—,' e. g.,

kapapások pa lámang niyá sa báhay ay sinalúbong na siyá nang kaniyá-ng asáwa nang mangá tungáyaw 'he had hardly entered the house, when his wife came to meet him with chiding words.'

When the predicate of both sentences is one of these forms, the meaning is 'now—now—,' e. g.,

kadarátng ay kaaalís niyá 'now he comes and now he goes.'

kapapások ay kalalabás niyá 'now he enters and now he goes out.'

§ 307. Sentences containing verbal forms with this *ka* on the basis of fully reduplicated roots regularly stand before another sentence, to which they are usually connected by *ay*. The first sentence bears to the second the relation of a subordinate temporal clause, introduced by 'just as soon as,' 'the very minute that.' The verb of the second sentence may be from the same root as that of the first, in which case it stands in the past tense of *maka* potential, indicating completed action, and is usually followed by the adverb *na*; or it may be from a different root, in which case the past tense of any class may be employed. In the first case the meaning is that as soon as a certain thing was begun, it was accomplished; in the second, that as soon as one thing was begun, another happened.—e. g.,

kahanaphánap ko nang libro'y { nakahánap na akó } 'as
nahánap ko na } soon as I looked for the book, I found it.'

katagpitagpî ko nang damít ay natagpî ko na 'as soon soon as I began to mend the clothes, they were mended.'

kalakadlákad ko'y natisód (IV a) akó 'as soon as I began to walk, I stumbled.'

kapangŭpanğúsap niyá'y umalís akó 'as soon as he began to speak, I departed.'

kapangŭpanğúsap niyá'y nagkamalî siyá 'as soon as he began to speak, he made a mistake.'

§ 308. Sentences containing verbal forms with the subsidiary prefixes *kapag*, *kapagka*, *pagka*, *pag* are practically temporal clauses and regularly stand before another sentence containing the principal idea, to which they are usually connected by *ay*; they sometimes, however, follow the sentence containing the principal idea, *ay* being always omitted in this

case. The meaning of these compound sentences is very similar to that just discussed; it is often equivalent to the English absolute participial constructions with 'having,' 'having been;' the participle of 'to be' viz., 'being' is expressed by *kapag* prefixed to the word which serves as predicate. The verb of the second sentence may stand in any tense form of any class. *Kapagka* and *pagka* refer more particularly to the completion of an action.—e. g.,

kapagalís nang áking amáy akó'y ungmális din 'as soon as my father departed, I went also.'

kapagkasábi nitó nang ángel ay nawalá 'as soon as the angel said this, he disappeared.'

pagkatapús nang msa'y malilígò (cf. § 89) tayó 'after mass is over, we are going to take a bath.'

pagbátì mo sa kaniyáy paríni ka 'after saluting him, come here.'

kapagkatapús niyá nang kaniyá-ng gawáy pinaritóhan niyá akó 'having finished his work, he came to where I was.'

pagkarinǵig ko niyán, umupô akó 'when I heard that, I sat down.'

kapagparé ay marúnung 'being a priest, he is learned.'
anó-ng áting gagaw'in pagkayárl nitó 'what shall we do after finishing this?'

aalís pagkapanhápon 'he will go after supper (supper being over).'

JUXTAPOSED SENTENCES.

§ 309. A sentence may stand in juxtaposition to another sentence without connective in the sense of an adverbial modifier, e. g.,

dì bagá siyá binigyán nang gantí dì pa nalaláon 'did he not give him a reward some days ago (it is not yet far distant).'

anó-ng ginawâ nang sang-Maynilà dì iiláng taón ang láon 'what did the population of Manila do, many years ago (the distance is not a few years).'

Cf. also §§ 304 end, 306, 307, 308, 323.

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

IN GENERAL.

§ 310. The dependent clauses of a complex sentence are introduced by relative pronouns or subordinate conjunctions, which stand at the beginning of the clause except in the case of postpositive *man* (cf. § 214). Subordinate clauses may precede or follow the principal clause, or may stand between two parts of it. When the subordinate clause follows the principal, the two are joined simply by the relative or conjunction, but when the principal clause, or part of it follows the subordinate, the latter is usually followed by the particle *ay*. The verbs of the clauses of complex sentences stand frequently in the modal. The subordinate conjunction sometimes takes the construction of an adverb at the beginning of a sentence (cf. §§ 335, 336), otherwise the conjunction does not affect the construction of the subordinate clause. Relative clauses have certain peculiarities, which will be discussed under the proper heading. The principal clause, of course, follows the construction of simple sentences.

Subordinate clauses may be divided into:—

- Simple Relative,
- Compound Relative,
- Noun Clauses introduced by the ligature,
- Clauses of Direct Quotation,
- Clauses of Result,
- Clauses of Purpose,
- Comparative,
- Temporal,
- Concessive,
- Conditional,
- Interrogative.

SIMPLE RELATIVE CLAUSES.

§ 311. 1. The relative pronouns are the ligatures *-ng*, *na* used according to rule (cf. § 20), except that *na* is sometimes used after a vowel. The relative clause always follows its antecedent, to which it bears an adjectival relation.

§ 311. 2. When the relative clause has a non-verbal predicate, i. e., when the predicate is an adjective or noun or contains the quasi-verbs *na*, *may*, *walâ* (cf. §§ 217—233), the relative, when it is the grammatical subject, is directly followed by the predicate without the interposition of *ay*. When the predicate is an adjective, the construction does not differ from that of noun and attributive adjective; when the predicate is a noun, the construction is similar to that of noun and appositive.—e. g.,

ang táwo-ng mabúti ay minamahál nang lahát 'a man who is good is esteemed by all.'

isá-ng kaluluwá-ng kalaráwan nang Diós ay dápat mo-ng mahalíng masákit 'a soul which is conformed to God (a similitude of God) you should esteem highly.'

maririkít bagá ang mangá bulaklák na na sa halamánan nang kapatíd mo 'are the flowers that are in your brother's garden pretty?'

may dalawá-ng líbo't labí-ng waló-ng may-asáwa díto sa báyang itó 'there are 2018 married people (who have spouses) in this town.'

tayó'y hinihintáy nang isá-ng búhay na walá-ng hanggán 'we are awaited by a life which has no end.'

§ 312. In relative clauses with verbal predicate the particle *ay* is not used when the verb follows the subject relative directly, but when some other element of the sentence intervenes between subject and predicate, *ay* is placed before the verb. After the subject relative the dependent verb stands in the active when the antecedent of the relative is the agent of the action, and in one of the three passives according to § 245 when the antecedent is the object or some accessory circumstance of the verbal action; i. e., when in English the relative is in the accusative case, or stands after a preposition. The modal is used to express a contingency.—e. g.,

ang hári-ng nagdaramdám na nang malakí-ng gútom ay nagwíkà nang gayón 'the king who was very hungry (felt a great hunger) spoke as follows.'

ang líbro-ng binabása mo ay ákin 'the book which you are reading is mine.'

ang súlat na ipinadalá mo sa ákin ay tinangáp ko 'I received the letter which you sent.'

akó'y naparoroón sa báhay na kinamatayán nang áking bayáw 'I am going to the house in which my brother-in-law died.'

may mangá táwo na, sa kanilá-ng paglákad, ay nakata-táwa 'there are men who cause laughter by their way of walking.'

dalhín mo ríto ang karáyom na itinahî mo nang áking bárò 'bring here the needle with which you sewed my shirt.'

ang báta-ng magáral na magalíng ay binigyán ko nang kuálta 'the boy who studies (if any boy studies), I will give him some money.'

§ 313. When the antecedent of the relative is the logical subject of the relative clause, this subject may be emphasized by a personal or demonstrative pronoun after the relative, as the grammatical subject of the clause; instead of *siyá ang*, *siyá-ng* may be used.—e. g.,

ang pinamamahági (bahági) niyá ay natatalastás nang áking mangá kapatíd na silá ang pinamamahagínan 'what he is distributing is known to my brothers to whom he is distributing it.'

at isá-ng laláki-ng piláy ay dinaralá doón na itó'y inilagáy nilá sa araw'araw sa pintóan nang témplo 'and they brought there a lame man whom they were accustomed to place everyday at the temple gate.'

dungmating siyá nang buwán nang Márzo na siyá-ng ikatló-ng buwán nang taón 'he arrived in the month of March, which is the third month of the year.'

§ 314. The genitive of a relative pronoun is expressed by the ligature in connection with a following article or genitive; an oblique case relation may be expressed by the ligature in connection with a following oblique case. The word order in the relative clause is the same as in independent sentences.—e. g.,

si Juána na si Handíng ang paláyaw 'Juana whose surname is Handing.'

si António na sa kaniyá-ng báhay paroroón akó búkas 'Antonio to whose house I am going tomorrow.'

may táwo sa labás na íbig niyá-ng pumások 'there is a man outside who wishes to enter (whose wish it is).'

ang báhay na ang bubóng ay páwid ay nasúnog 'the house with the nipa roof has burned down (of which the roof is).'

na saán ang laláki na ang asáwa'y namatáy kahápon 'where is the man whose wife died yesterday?'

ang bátà na ang amá'y pinatáy nang mangá tulisán ay na sa ámin 'the child whose father was killed by the robbers is at our house.'

ang pagkaapóstol na dito'y nahúlog si Júdas 'the apostleship from which Judas fell.'

ang matandá-ng kaibig'íbig na ang pagaalaála sa kaniyá ay dí mapáwi kailán man 'the lovable old man whose memory will never fade.'

nagsitípon ang lahat sa isá-ng báhay na doón ngá'y nananatili sa pagsisipanalángin 'all gathered together in a house where (in which) they remained in prayer.'

COMPOUND RELATIVE CLAUSES.

§ 315. A compound relative clause is introduced by a compound relative pronoun (cf. § 27). When the pronoun constitutes the subject of the clause, it is followed directly by the predicate unless some element is inserted as in § 336. Otherwise the regular rules of order after a subordinate conjunction prevail (cf. § 310). These clauses are practically nouns and have the various constructions of definite nouns. The modal is used as in simple relative clauses. For the definite article with verbs cf. § 251. Other compound relative clauses are, e. g.,

ang dí iyó 'that which is not yours.'

huwág ka-ng magnásà nang dí mo ári 'don't wish for what is not yours.'

huwág ka-ng magnásà sa dí mo asáwa 'thou shalt not desire her who is not thy wife.'

ang kahinhinán ay siyá-ng ikinagagaling nang manḡá dalága 'modesty is what beautifies maidens.'

ang áking nuno'y siyá-ng nagpalakí sa ákin 'my grandfather was the one who brought me up.'

ang manḡá langám ang siyá-ng lungmípol nang lahát 'the ants destroyed everything (were the ones that).'

ang pagkakaibigán siyá-ng sagísag nang manḡá kristiáno 'the motto of Christians is mutual love.'

§ 316. Subject clauses, i. e., clauses that take the place of a subject noun, may be introduced by *ang* meaning 'the fact that.' The verb often stands in the modal.—e. g.,

hindí magaling ang ikáw ay magpakarámi nang wíkà mo 'it is not well that you should talk so much.'

lubhá-ng ikinaáwà nang Diós sa táwo ang siyá'y maáwà sa kapuwà 'the fact that he (a man) is merciful to his neighbor makes God very merciful to him.'

§ 317. Clauses introduced by *ang* have sometimes the force of clauses introduced by subordinate conjunctions. The verb of the dependent clause is often modal, especially in purpose clauses. The negative of the modal in these purpose clauses is usually indicated by *huwág*, though the categorical negatives *dí*, etc. may also be used.—e. g.,

ang ipinagmamarúnung nang manḡá bánḡal ay ang silá'y purihin 'fools pretend to be wise in order to be praised.'

ang ipinarúsa niyá sa ákin ay ang akó'y mag'ayúno 'he imposed as a penance that I should fast.'

ang ipinagsasangléy nang manḡá párè ay ang silá'y huwág makilála 'the priests act like Chinese in order that they may not be recognized.'

ang ipinagsakitsakitan niyá'y ang dí siyá parusáhan 'he feigned to be ill in order not to be punished.'

akó'y hinampás ang akó'y tungmanán 'I was beaten because I ran away.'

Ang is in this case practically a conjunction. It may also be combined with a following conjunction of cause or purpose, and with preceding *at* indicating cause.—e. g.,

ang ipinagpapakabúti nang áking pinsáng babáyí'y ang nang siyá'y mapúri 'my cousin adorns herself that she may be (able to be) praised.'

akó'y hinampás at ang akó'y tungmanán 'I was beaten because I ran away.'

itó'y malakí ding lubhá-ng kasalánan ang bákit dí naiibig nang Diós na ang mangá kahalili niyá'y hokóman nang sinomán 'this is a very great sin also, because God does not wish his ministers to be judged by anyone (cf. § 320).'

§ 318. Under the head of compound relative clauses are to be classed clauses governed by a preposition followed by some form of the article, which is here a compound relative pronoun. Sometimes the article standing before the nominative of a sentence takes the case form required by the preposition instead of being preceded by another article in the proper case form.—e. g.,

mahólog dahíl sa siyá'y lasíng 'he fell because he was drunk.'

walâ siyá-ng makáin at mainúm bukód sa walâ pa-ng pinggán at inumán 'he has nothing to eat or drink in addition to not having any plate or drinking-vessel.'

ang dágat ay payápà sampô nang hanǵí'y amíhan 'the sea is calm and the wind also is mild.'

These prepositions + article are practically subordinate conjunctions, and the most important of them will be treated under the various kinds of subordinate clauses.

NOUN CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY THE LIGATURE.

§ 319. A noun clause is one that takes the place of a noun. Compound relative clauses are practically noun clauses. Other noun clauses are introduced by the ligature, *na*, however, being frequently used after a vowel instead of *-ng*; at the beginning of a sentence with principal clause omitted, only *na* can be used. A dependent verb stands in the modal to indicate a subjunctive or potential idea. The subordinate clause regularly follows the principal.

§ 320. The subordinate clause may depend on a verb of saying or one indicating an operation of the mind, taking the place of the object of the active or the subject of the passive, e. g.,

síno ang nagsábi sa iyó-ng akó'y may-sakit 'who told you that I was sick.'

hungmihiling akó sa kaniyá na akó'y pagkaloóban niyán 'I am begging him to give me that.'

sabihin mo sa iyó-ng kapatid na tinatáwag ko siyá 'tell your brother that I am calling him.'

iniisip ko na siyá'y bungmabása 'I think that he is reading.'

{ anó ang sinábi mo sa kaniyá 'what did you tell him?'

{ na ang ibon ay ákin 'that the bird is mine.'

ibig pô bagá ninyó-ng umupô akó sa inyó-ng tabí 'do you want me to sit beside you.'

§ 321. The subordinate clause may depend on an impersonal predicate, usually representing the logical subject or agent of the sentence, e. g.,

malaón na-ng hindi akó hungmihípò nang salapí 'it is (a) long (time) that I have not touched money.'

totóo nga na siyá'y naparito 'it is indeed true that he came.'

mayroón na-ng iláng áraw na may-sakit ang anak mo 'how many days is it that your son has been sick?'

Some verbs of the form in § 99, become in this construction practically subordinate conjunctions; the whole complex sentence is used before the principal clause like a simple sentence containing a similar verbal form.—e. g.,

pagkatápus na makapagbigáy nang manḡá útos sa manḡá apóstol, ay tinanggáp siyá sa kaitaásan 'after (it being past that) he had given the commandments to the Apostles, he was taken up on high.'

Here belongs the clause after the interjection *narito* 'behold!' which contains the quasi-verb *na*, e. g.,

narito na ang dalawá-ng laláki ay nanḡagsitindig sa tabí niyá 'behold, two men stood up beside him.'

§ 322. The subordinate clause may stand as the object of the quasi-verbs *may* and *walâ*, the ligature that introduces the

clause taking the place of the regular ligature before the object, e. g.,

may kayâ sa inyó na súkat maáwà sa dukhá-ng Luís 'is there among you (anyone) that can take pity on poor Luis?'

CLAUSES OF DIRECT QUOTATION.

§ 323. These are often similar to the clauses in § 320. They are either placed after the clause containing the verb of saying, with or without ligature, or are made the predicate of a copulative sentence whose subject is the verb of saying preceded by the article. The quotation may be preceded by a demonstrative pronoun which stands for the following sentence.—e. g.,

nagsábi siyá sa kanilá, bumása kayó 'he said to them "read".'

sinábi niyá sa kaniyá-ng alíla-ng pakáinin mo silá 'he said to his servant, "feed them".'

ang sinábi niyá'y huwág ka-ng patuksó 'he said, "don't let yourself be tempted".'

ang ipinangáral niyá'y itó, ilágan ninyó ang kasalánan 'what he preached was this, "avoid evil".'

CLAUSES OF RESULT.

§ 324. These are introduced by the ligature, and are somewhat similar to relative clauses; the dependent clause regularly follows the principal.—e. g.,

pinatáwad mo na siyá sa tanán mo-ng lóob na walâ na-ng kasukálan ang lóob mo sa kaniyá 'did you pardon him with all your heart so that you have no feeling against him?'

nagpatiwakál ka kayâ sa áwà nang Diós sa iyó na ang ísip (cf. § 411) mo'y hindî ka na mangyári-ng patawárin nang Pangínóon Diós 'have you despaired of God's mercy towards you so that you thought it was not possible for the Lord God to pardon you?'

PURPOSE CLAUSES.

§ 325. These clauses are introduced by conjunctions of purpose, among which is the ligature. Those introduced by the ligature are practically noun clauses, like those in § 320, after a verb expressing purpose. The principal conjunctions of purpose are, viz.:

nang	}	'in order that.'
upán		
-ng, na		
makâ	}	'lest, for fear that.'
bakâ		

These are regularly followed by the modal or future. The negative of the purpose clause is regularly *huwág*, though the categorical negatives may also be employed.

Examples of sentences containing purpose clauses are—

huwág ka-ng gumawâ nang kabanálan nang purihin ka nang manģá táwo 'don't do good in order that men may praise you.'

ang kaginoóhan ay napasúgò nang manģá katiwálà nang sasalubúnģin ang hári 'the senate sent deputies in order to meet the king.'

ang bulág ay namanhík na siyá 'y limúsan 'the blind man went up that he might be given alms.'

siyá'y dungmaíng sa iná nang huwág parusáhan ang bátà 'he asked the mother not to beat the boy.'

umalís kayó-ng umága nang dí kayó maaráwan 'go early that you may not be harmed by the sun.'

huwág ka-ng magdáan sa bundók makâ haránģin ka nang manģá tulisán 'don't go by way of the mountain, lest robbers attack you.'

alís ka na bakâ magabíhan ka sa gúbat 'go now, lest night overtake you in the wood.'

Sentences introduced by *at* (cf. § 303) and *ang* (cf. § 317) are sometimes equivalent to purpose clauses.

COMPARATIVE CLAUSES.

§ 326. These are introduced by comparative conjunctions, the principal of which are, viz.:

gay'óng	} 'according as.'
pára nang	
pára-ng	
gáya nang	
áyon sa	
konowári 'as if.'	

The principal clause of a sentence containing a comparative clause after *gay'óng*, may be introduced by an indefinite adverb of manner, the subordinate conjunction and the adverb forming a combination very similar to a coordinate correlative conjunction.

Examples of sentences containing comparative clauses are—

nakaiibig ka kayá-ng magin'asáwa niri-ng babáyi pára nang iniuútos nang Diós 'do you wish to marry this woman, according as God commands?'

pára nang sinábi sa ákin, ibinabalitá ko 'I am relating it just as it was told to me.'

pára nang gawâ (cf. § 411) mo sa kanilá ay ganoón din gagawâ nilá sa iyó 'just as you do to them, so they will do to you.'

diyán sa kaluluwá mo ay nalolobálob silá pára-ng sa sarili nilá-ng pusalian 'there in your soul they (the devils) wallow as if in their own filth.'

dí (cf. § 293) pára-ng inaalís mo sa kaniyá ang kaniyá-ng pagkadiós 'isn't that just as if you took from his him divinity?'

sundín (§ 81) ang lóob mo dito sa lúpà pára nang sa lánġit 'thy will be done on earth as (it is done) in heaven.'

sumagót ka áyon sa itatanóng ko sa iyó 'answer according as I shall question you.'

gay'óng ang kaluluwá'y nagpapabuháy sa kataw'án ay gay'ón din namán ang gagáran ay nagpapabuháy

sa manǵá panǵunǵúsap 'just as the soul animates the body, so also imitation gives life to speech.'

For comparisons expressed by conditional sentences cf.

§§ 332, 333.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES.

§ 327. These are introduced by temporal conjunctions, the principal of which are, viz.:

nang	}	'when.'
noón		
nión		
niyón		
niyaón		
kun		
túwi-ng	}	'whenever.'
sa túwi-ng		
bágo		'before.'
kápag	}	'as soon as, after.'
kapagká		
pagká		
pag		
sa		
sayaóng		'from the time that.'
samantála(-ng)		'while.'
hanggán		'while.'

Nang, *noón*, *nión*, etc. are used of past time, *kun* of present and future, or of continued action in the past. *Túwi* is regularly joined to the predicate of the dependent clause by the ligature, either directly or as in § 335. After *bágo* the verb regularly stands in the modal, the adverb *múna* being used with the verb of the principal clause. *Nang* and *sa* also frequently take the modal. *Kápag*, etc. are used where in English an absolute participial construction is often employed.

Examples of sentences containing temporal clauses are—

kahápon nang ikaw ay tungmatánǵis (ay) nalumbáy akó
'yesterday when you were weeping, I was sorry.'

noón akó'y na sa Espánya (ay) maginháwa ang lágay

ko 'when I was in Spain, I was in comfortable circumstances (my position was easy).'
 silá'y nangagúlat nang makità nilá ang áhas 'they were frightened, when they saw the snake.'
 kun akó'y nagaáral ay hindî akó sungmusúlat 'when I study I do not write.'
 bágo kumáin ay magdarasál (cf. § 413, b) ka muna 'before you eat, you must pray.'
 túwi-ng kungmakáin akó ay ungmiinúm 'whenever I eat, I drink.'
 kápag ginawâ niyá yaón ay nawalâ siyá 'after he had done that, having done that, he disappeared.'
 pag sinábi niyá itó ay namatáy } 'having said this, he
 sa siyá'y nagsábi nitó ay namatáy } died.'
 hanggán kasáma ko siyá ay magalíng ang gawâ 'while he was my companion, he worked well (his work was good).'

CAUSAL CLAUSES.

§ 328. These are introduced by causal conjunctions, the principal of which are, viz.:

sapagká	}	'because.'
dahíl sa		
dahilán sa		
mayápà		'simply because.'
kayâ		'the reason why, just because.'
palibhása	}	'inasmuch as, since.'
báwa		
yámang	}	'seeing that, since.'
yayámang		
hámanḡ		
háyang		
hayámang		

Sapagká is the conjunction ordinarily used in answer to a sentence introduced by the interrogative *bákit* 'why?'

Examples of sentences containing causal clauses are—

{ bákit hindi mo iniinúm itó-ng álak 'why don't you drink this wine?' -

{ sapagká
sapagká't } akó'y may-sakit 'because I am sick.'

kayâ nga siyá'y babáyi magpakahínhin siyá 'just because she is a woman, she is modest.'

ang kabatáan at ang katandáan ay isá rin sa haráp nang kamatáyan palibhása'y ang kamatáyan ay walá-ng gálang sa kaníno man 'youth and age are the same thing in the presence of death, since death is no respecter of persons (has no respect for any body).'

háman^g kinúha mo ay iyó na 'seeing that you have taken it, you may keep it (it is yours already).'

Sentences introduced by *at* (cf. § 303), and *ang* (cf. § 317), are sometimes equivalent to causal clauses.

§ 329. Sentences containing verbal forms made with *ka-an* (c) stand regularly in principal clauses, modified by a subordinate clause introduced by *kayâ* or one of its compounds. The second sentence gives the cause for the action expressed by the first, the verb of which may stand in any tense form of any class.—e. g.,

kayâ siyá'y naparíto ay katakótan 'the reason he come was because he was afraid, because of fear.'

kayâ akó'y nagsisílbi ay kaupahán sa ákin 'the reason I serve, is because of the salary [they pay] to me.'

kayâ pinaalis ang hokóm ay kabagsíkan niyá 'the reason the judge was ordered to depart was because of his cruelty.'

CONCESSIVE CLAUSES.

§ 330. These are introduced by concessive conjunctions, the principal of which are, viz.:

man (<i>postp.</i>)	}	'although, though.'
bagamán		
káhi		
kahíman		
bistâ		
sukdán		
matáyman		

The modal is used in the subordinate clause to express a contingency.

Examples of sentences containing concessive clauses are—

marúnong man silá'y hindî magagandá 'although wise, they are not beautiful.'

patáyin man akó ay paroroón din akó 'though they kill me, still I shall go there.'

bagamán akó'y dukhá walâ akó-ng utang 'although I am poor, I have no debts.'

káhi't akó'y hampásin walâ akó-ng sasabíhin 'although they beat me, I shall say nothing.'

bistá't napopóot sa ákin ay bibigyán din akó 'although he is angry with me, he will give it to me.'

§ 331. Concessive clauses which in English begin with an interrogative followed by 'ever', e. g., 'whoever, however,' etc., are rendered in general by an interrogative in conjunction with a concessive conjunction; 'however' as an adjectival modifier may be expressed simply by the conjunction, or by the conjunction in connection with *anó*, which is joined to the following adjective by the ligature.—e. g.,

paparíto akó sukdán anó ang mangyári 'I shall go whatever may happen.'

malakí man ang mangá kasalánan mo'y patawárin ka Niyá 'however great your sins, He will pardon you.'

káhi't anó-ng marúnung kami ay hindî rin nátin matarók ang pagkadiós nang Diós 'however wise we may be, we cannot conceive the divinity of God.'

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES.

§ 332. These are introduced by conditional conjunctions, the principal of which are, viz.:

kun 'if.'

saganó
sakáli } 'if perchance.'

kundi 'if not, unless, except.'

kundángan
dángan
haringá } 'if it were not that, if it were not for.'

libán sa
pasubáli sa } 'except that, if not.'
huwág lámang 'provided that not.'

The modal adverbs *sánà* and *disín* are frequently used in one or both clauses of conditional sentences. Interrogative words used in the subordinate clause have an indefinite meaning; such sentences often express a comparison. The verbs often stand in the modal. The prepositions *kundángan* and *dángan* + object practically constitute conditional clauses.

Examples of sentences containing conditional clauses are—

- kun ikáw ay magaling ay mamahalin ka nang lahat 'if you are good, every body will esteem you.'
- kun iyán sánà ay totóo, akó'y mamatáy disín 'if that should be so, I should die.'
- kun íbig mo sánà ay susúlat akó 'if you wish I shall write.'
- kun mayroón disín siyá-ng álak hindí siyá iinúm nang túbig 'if he had wine he would not drink water.'
- akó'y magaáral sánà, kun bigyán (§ 81) mo akó niyáng líbro 'I would study if you gave me that book.'
- ang báta'y hindí magáral kundí bumása 'the boy will not learn unless he reads.'
- ang isá namá'y walá-ng ginagawâ (cf. § 415, b) kundí kumáin nang kumáin nang lamangkáti-ng maálat 'another did nothing but eat salt meat continually.'
- kundángan ikáw ay kaibígan ko hindí ko siyá-ng aakáyin 'if it were not that you were my friend, I would not guide him.'
- ikáw disín ang hahampásin kundángan ang amá mo 'you would be beaten if it were not for your father.'
- kun anó ang amá ay siyá rin ang anák 'like father like son (if anything the father, just so the son).'
- kun paanó akó-ng (cf. § 258) nagaáral ay magáral ka namán 'study just as I study (if thus I study, study thou likewise).'

§ 333. After a negative conditional clause the agent of the independent clause may be used elliptically with the adverb *pa* in a question which expects a negative answer, e. g.,

kundî ko kayá-ng gaw'in iyán, si Juán pa 'if I could not do it, do you think Juan can?'

kun ang mangá malalakás ay dî nilá-ng mabúhat iyáng síkang, akó pa 'if strong men are not able to lift that beam, shall I then?'

DEPENDENT INTERROGATIVE CLAUSES.

§ 334. The conjunction *kun* is also used to introduce a dependent interrogative clause in the sense of 'whether, to see whether': when in English the indirect question is introduced by a special interrogative word, viz., 'who?' 'what?' 'where?' etc., this conjunction must be used before the interrogative. In this latter case the subordinate clause is the logical subject of the verb of the principal clause, which stands in the passive. The verb of the dependent clause may stand in the modal to denote a future contingency.—e. g.,

ibig ko sána-ng tumanóng sa inyó kun dápat akó-ng bumuwís 'I should like to ask you whether I ought to pay tribute.'

hindî akó-ng makapagsábi sa iyó kun akó'y makapagdadálaw sa kaniyá 'I cannot say whether I shall be able to visit him.'

akó'y mangingisdâ kun makapanġisdâ 'I am going fishing to see whether I can catch anything.'

hindî ko naaaláman kun síno ang sungmúlat niyán 'I do not know who wrote that.'

itanóng mo sa kaniyá kun anó-ng nġálan niyá 'ask him what his name is.'

naringġig ko kun saán naparoón 'I heard where he went.' sabihin mo kun kanino itó 'tell whose this is.'

'Why?' introducing an indirect question may be expressed by a noun meaning 'cause' or 'reason' followed by a clause introduced by *kayâ*, used as the subject of the principal verb, e. g.,

ipinagsusúlit ni Dávid sa Diós ang dahilán kayâ siyá hindî pinaghahandógan nang mangá hayíng natitigmák nang dugô 'David told God why he did not offer bloody sacrifices (which are soaked with blood).'

CONJUNCTIONS WITH ADVERBIAL CONSTRUCTION.

§ 335. The subordinate conjunctions for the most part do not affect the construction of their clauses, the order after the conjunction being the same as in simple sentences. Sometimes, however, certain subordinate conjunctions take the adverbial construction in § 262. The coordinate conjunction *kundî bagkús* may take the same construction.—e. g.,

akó'y nagdarasál bágo akó-ng bumása 'I pray before I read.'

túwì akó-ng nag'aáral ay bungmabása akó 'whenever I study, I read.'

sukdán akó-ng patáyin ay paroroón din akó 'although they should kill me, yet will I go.'

akó'y nagdarasál bágo akó bumása 'I pray before I read.'

kundî niyá ipahahayág ang kinatatagóan nang kaniyá-ng asáwa 'unless she would show her husband's hiding place.'

hindî, kundî bagkús silá-ng dápat mag'ibigán 'no, but on the contrary they should love one another.'

§ 336. This adverbial construction may also be employed after the ligature (as relative or conjunction of purpose) or after a compound relative or a conjunction identical with some form of the article; but in this case the subject pronouns (including *siyá* or *siyá-ng*, §§ 313, 315) must precede the genitive.—e. g.,

ang manḡá Tagálog ay pinamamatnogótan (patnogót) ni Aguinaldo na siyá nilá-ng pinanalígan 'the Tagalogs were led by Aguinaldo, whom they trusted.'

pakagalinḡin mo ang iyó-ng pagkokompisál na ka-ng patawárin nang Panḡinóong Diós 'make a good confession that you may be pardoned by the Lord God.'

na mo nḡáni-ng maaláman 'that you indeed may know.'
ang áking iná ang siyá ko-ng ipinaglolótò 'my mother is the one for whom I am cooking.'

linaláng ni Jesucrísto ang sacraménto nang Confesión nang siyá ko-ng paghugásan nang dúnḡis at libág

nang áking kaluluwá 'Christ instituted the sacrament of confession in order that I might cleanse my soul from impurity.'

V. INVOLVED SENTENCES.

IN GENERAL.

§ 337. Involved sentences are those which consist of more than two sentences combined. As in the case of sentences made up of two simple sentences (cf. § 299), the parts of an involved sentence connected by coordinate conjunctions will be called members, those introduced by a relative or subordinate conjunction, subordinate clauses. They may be compound, consisting of three or more sentences or members connected by coordinate conjunctions; complex, containing a principal and two or more subordinate clauses; or a combination of compound and complex, two or more complex sentences or complex and simple sentences being joined together by coordinate conjunctions. In complex sentences the order of the clauses is very free, they may be juxtaposed in almost any order, or one may be inserted in another; in this last case the inserted clause is always followed by *ay*. The members, whether simple or complex, of a compound sentence follow one another in order; when *at* 'and' connects three or more members, it is ordinarily omitted except between the last two.—e. g.,

káhi't anó-ng pagkakilála nátin sa Diós ay hindî rin nátin matadók na lubós ang kaniyá-ng kamahálan; bagkús lálo-ng malakí pa ang dî nátin naaábut 'whatever may be our knowledge of God, we cannot completely comprehend his excellence, but on the contrary that which we cannot conceive of is much greater.'

kun íbig mo-ng huwág ka-ng ibabâ nang Diós ay magpakumbabâ ka 'if you do not wish God to humble you, you will be humbled.'

kun yaón ay nahúlog ay mangyayári rin namán akó-ng mahúlog, palibhása'y akó'y táwo-ng mahína-ng pára

rin niyá 'if he had fallen it is possible that I would have fallen too, since I am a weak man just as he is.'

ang kabáyo-ng lálo-ng báliw ay tungmitígil nang pagtakbó, kápag pinagbabaláan nang sandáta; datapowá't ang táwo-ng makasalánan ay hindi tungmitígil káhi't pagbaláan siyá nang nagbabága-ng espáda nang gálit nang Diós 'the most furiously going horse stops in his career when he is threatened by a sword, but the sinner does not stop, though he be menaced by the flaming blade of God's anger.'

may isá-ng maglalayág na, nang makita-ng itinatápon sa dágat ang lahát na nakabibig'át, ay kinúha ang kaniyá-ng asáwa't itatápon din, at nang makaligtás sa kaniyá sa ganitó-ng paráan, sapagká't, sinasábi niyá-ng kailán ma'y hindi siyá nakakitá nang gay-*'óng* kabig'át na pára nang kaniyá-ng asáwa 'there was a sailor, who, when he saw them throwing everything heavy into the sea, seized his wife, and was about to throw her in too, that he might free himself by this means, because, he said, he had never seen any thing so heavy (such a heavy thing) as his wife.'

pagdáka'y tumindíg siyá, tumakbó sa ákin, lumuhód siyá't humalík sa ákin nang kamáy 'immediately he got up, ran to me, knelt down and kissed my hand.'

PARENTHETICAL EXPRESSIONS.

§ 338. Various parenthetical words and expressions may be inserted in the various parts of the different kinds of sentences. When they are inserted between two words which are joined by the ligature or *ay* the particle is shifted to the last word of the parenthesis or is used both before and after the parenthesis; otherwise the construction of the sentence is unchanged. Of a similar character are the subordinate clauses which are inserted between the two parts of a principal or another subordinate clause.—e. g.,

huwág { ka, ang wika-ng
ka-ng ang wika-ng } matákot 'do not fear, he said'
akó, a-niyá, ay húni nang húni 'I, he said, sing all the
time.'

kun gay'ón, ang wikà niyá'y sasabíhin ko ang tapát 'it
that is so, said she, I will tell the truth.'

alín, sa akálà mo, ang lálò-ng mabúti-ng búnga sa lahát
which, in your opinion, is the best of all fruits.'

sapagká't kun tagáraw, a-niyá'y marámi akó-ng gawá't
abála 'because in the summer, said he, I have a great
deal to attend to.'

si Juán, sa katotohánan, ay nagbinyág nang túbig, data-
puwá't kayó'y bibinyagán sa Espíritu Sánto 'John,
in truth, baptized with water, but you will be bap-
tized with the Holy Spirit.'

itó-ng táwo'y káhi't silá'y mangá dalá (cf. § 411) ay nag-
sisiparoroón sa pilítan 'these people are forced to go
there, even though they have to be carried.'

VI. WORD ORDER.

§ 339. The articles, the plural particle *mangá*, interrogative pronominal adjectives, cardinal, distributive and fractional numerals, an oblique case used as a genitive and adverbs (not postpositive) used as adjectives, precede the noun or pronoun they modify (cf. §§ 164, 166, 168, 170, 171, 177, 178, 188, 189).

An indefinite dependent nominative, an appositive, a genitive, an oblique case (except as above) or equivalent prepositional phrase or adverb, and an infinitive or clause, follow the noun or pronoun they modify (cf. §§ 174, 175—177, 179, 180).

A descriptive adjective and an ordinal numeral may stand either before or after the modified noun or pronoun (cf. §§ 169, 173); indefinite pronouns usually precede but may also follow the modified noun or pronoun (cf. § 167, 189); possessive adjectives have two series of forms, one prepositive, the other postpositive (cf. § 172, 189); demonstrative adjectives may

stand either before or after the modified noun or pronoun, or both before and after (cf. §§ 165, 189).

For the construction of coordinated nouns and pronouns cf. §§ 182, 191.

For the relative order of the various nominal modifiers cf. § 181.

The modifiers of a descriptive adjective regularly follow except in the case of certain adverbs (cf. §§ 192—200); when an adjective is used as a noun, however, it may, of course, take various nominal modifiers before it (cf. § 201).

The modifiers of adverbs, except the forms of the definite article and certain other adverbs, stand after them (cf. §§ 202—204).

A preposition is followed by its object, except sometimes those of class (b) governing a personal pronoun (cf. § 210).

In a simple sentence the order may be: subject + predicate, or predicate + subject (cf. §§ 217, 224, 229, 242), or the subject may be placed between two parts of the predicate (cf. §§ 221, 224, 229, 236, 240, 252, 253, 258, 260, 261, 262, 269, 270, 271).

Negative and interrogative sentences regularly take one of the last two forms, unless special emphasis is laid on the subject (cf. §§ 222, 223, 224, 225, 226, 229, 231, 235, 252—255, 290—293).

The objects of the quasi-verbs *na*, *walâ*, *may* (cf. §§ 224, 229, 230, 271), and of active and passive verbs (cf. §§ 243—246), regularly stand after them. A pronominal agent of a passive verb may stand before or after according as it is prepositive or postpositive, and an agent in the oblique case precedes; otherwise the agent follows (cf. § 245).

An adverb (not postpositive) may have a great variety of positions (cf. §§ 235—240; 257—263).

Prepositional phrases and oblique cases have in general the same rules of position, except that an oblique case equivalent to a genitive precedes the word it modifies (cf. §§ 177, 245). A prepositional phrase or an oblique may stand as the predicate of a simple copulative sentence (cf. §§ 219, 220). They regularly follow the quasi-verbs *na*, *may*, and *walâ* (cf.

§§ 224, 229; 211). In a verbal sentence they may either follow or stand at the beginning of a sentence (cf. §§ 243, 245, 266, 267). They may be inserted as parentheses in almost any part of a sentence (cf. § 338).

A genitive, except a prepositive possessive, regularly follows the word it modifies (cf. §§ 176, 184, 199, 203, 210, 243, 245); when used adverbially and in certain forms of comparison it may stand at the beginning of a sentence (cf. §§ 260, 261, 286).

A dependent verb follows the verb on which it depends (cf. §§ 268—270).

A conjunction (not postpositive) and a relative pronoun, regularly stand at the beginning of the sentence they introduce (cf. §§ 301, 310).

A sentence following a conjunction has the same rules of order as an independent sentence (cf. §§ 301—304; 310—334), except in certain relative clauses (cf. §§ 311. 2—313), and after conjunctions with adverbial construction (cf. §§ 335, 336).

A subordinate clause may either precede or follow its principal, or stand between two parts of the principal (cf. §§ 310—334; 337).

A parenthetical word, phrase or clause may be inserted in almost any part of a sentence (cf. § 338).

§ 340. The postpositive words form a special class. They are, viz., the noun *pô* (cf. § 350, 4), the postpositive pronominal forms (cf. § 190), the postpositive adverbs (cf. § 205), the conjunction *man* (cf. § 214), and the interjections *bapá*, *ayá* (cf. §§ 294, 295). These follow in general the rules of position laid down in the paragraphs referred to.

When a postpositive word modifies a word which has in addition a preceding modifier, the postpositive word is regularly, though not necessarily, placed directly after the modifier instead of after the word modified. The principal phrases in which a postpositive word is thus inserted are discussed in the following paragraphs, viz.,

- a) two words joined by the ligature (cf. §§ 22, 164—175, 178, 179, 186, 187, 189, 195—197, 200, 201, 202, 210, 211, 229, 240, 244, 246, 258, 268—271).
- b) a word and a modifier which stand in juxtaposition

without ligature (cf. §§ 167, 170, 174, 195, 196, 197, 210, 223, 229, 244, 252, 253, 262, 269, 270, 271, 335).

Postpositive adverbs modifying a prepositional phrase stand between preposition and object (cf. § 211).

Some additional examples of the order of postpositive words are—

naríto n̄ga bagá silá sa báyan 'are they indeed in the town?'
ikáw din bagá ang naparoón sa Maynìlà 'is it you
yourself who went to Manila?'

ikáw bagá kayâ (kayâ bagá) ang kapatíd ni María 'are
you Maria's child?'

akó n̄ga palá 'I am most assuredly.'

siyá rin n̄ga ang naparoón 'he himself indeed is the
one that went.'

huwág kalimótan ninyó 'don't forget.'

iinúm sánà kayâ siyá nang túbig kun mayroón disín
'would he drink water if he had any?'

hindì ko n̄ga kapidbáhay 'he is not my neighbor.'

paroroón ka kayâ namán 'will you also go?'

ipinagpiprítos mo namán siyá nang ságing 'fry him
also some bananas.'

iniúbig mo bagá namán ang iyó-ng iná 'do you also
love your mother?'

si Juan sána'y dumating kundánggan nagkasakit 'Juan would
have come, if he had not been sick.'

kun inyó sána-ng sinílip 'if you could have seen him.'

kundi kulankáp din niyá namán 'but is its very substance
also.'

dumating siyá nawâ 'may he come.'

ang báyang malápit n̄ga sa Jerusalém 'the town which
was near indeed to Jerusalem.'

táwo na ang kaliwâ ay pára ring kánan 'a man whose
left hand is just like his right.'

akó'y táwo-ng mahína-ng pára niyá 'I am a weak man
just like him.'

bukód pa dito 'in addition to this.'

bukód pa namán dito 'in addition also to this.'

dahíl n̄ga diyán 'verily on account of that.'

PART FOURTH. SPECIAL SYNTAX.

I. IN GENERAL.

§ 341. 1. In the syntax of combinations, the material of the language is treated mainly from the standpoint of that word of the combination which is modified by the others; in this part, all the uses of the various elements and principles of the language will be discussed from the standpoint of the individual element or principle. The matters to be treated fall into the following classes, viz.:

- a) the parts of speech; the interjection, being really a sentence, has already been sufficiently discussed (cf. §§ 139, 294—297).
- b) various forms of the parts of speech which are varied to express case, tense, etc.
- c) various morphological and syntactical principles, as, e. g., reduplication, apposition.
- d) individual words belonging to the various parts of speech.

The various forms and individual words are treated in connection with the part of speech to which they belong. The sections dealing with principles are inserted where it seemed most convenient. In the final section the interrelations of the parts of speech and the various types of construction found in the language are discussed.

II. REDUPLICATION.

§ 341. 2. The various kinds of reduplication have already been enumerated in § 19. Reduplication may be either significant or non-significant, significant when it changes the meaning of the word reduplicated, non-significant when the reduplication is apparently without definite meaning.

Varieties (1), (5) and (6) are always non-significant; partial reduplication (2) is non-significant in the following cases, viz.:

- a) in certain nouns simple and derivative (cf. §§ 51; 140, b; 145; 146; 147; 149, b; 150, g; 151, f), e. g.,
 laláki 'man.'
 babáyi 'woman.'
 masasaktín 'sickly.'
 inaamá 'god-father.'
- b) in the numerals
 dalawá 'two.'
 * tatló 'three.'
- c) in roots of the *magkan* class (cf. § 67), e. g.,
 magkanlulúhà 'to weep (modal).'

Significant reduplication, generally speaking, emphasizes or strengthens in some way the meaning of the simple word. The various significant uses of (2), (3), and (4) are the following.

Partial reduplication (2) has the following meanings—

A. emphasis, intensiveness or plurality in,

- a) adjectives with prefixed *ma* (cf. §§ 53; 151, c).
- b) adjectives with prefixed *sing* (cf. §§ 57; 149, e).
- c) the pronouns and adjectives *kauntî*, *muntî* (cf. §§ 32, 53).
- d) nouns with prefix *mag* (cf. § 152).
- e) abstract nouns (cf. §§ 149, g; 150, b; 156).
- f) restrictive numerals and names of money (cf. §§ 42, 51).
- g) nouns with prefix *ka* denoting individuals (cf. § 149, a).
- h) present and future (cf. § 63), and the verbal nouns derived from them (cf. §§ 141—144).
- i) active imperatives with prefix *ka* (cf. § 98, a).
- j) other verbal forms with subsidiary *ka* denoting 'to have just' (cf. § 98, b).
- k) certain nouns and roots after *sa* (cf. §§ 51, 347).

In a), b), c), d), e), the reduplication regularly denotes plurality, though at times it intensifies some idea other than number; in f), g) it emphasizes the idea of indivi-

duality; in h), i), j) it indicates additional vividness in time relations; in k) it has a peculiar emphatic meaning.

B. distribution in,

- a) distributives with prefix *tig* (cf. § 39).
- b) certain derivative nouns (cf. §§ 146, c).
- c) *magkakanó* (cf. § 28).
- d) numeral adverbs (cf. § 40).

Full reduplication (3) has the following meanings—

A. emphasis, intensiveness or plurality in,

- a) the pronoun of the third person plural (cf. § 25).
- b) interrogative pronouns (cf. § 28).
- c) root nouns (cf. § 51).
- d) derivative nouns (cf. §§ 149, f; 150, b, d; 156).
- e) adverbs (cf. §§ 130, 131).
- f) the verbal classes (cf. § 78).
- g) verbal forms with subsidiary *ka* (cf. § 98, c).

The reduplication in b) usually, though not necessarily, denotes the plural; in d) it also often indicates plurality, sometimes the superlative of adjectives; in g) it denotes additional vividness in time relations; otherwise it is simply intensive.

B. distribution in,

- a) root nouns (cf. § 51).
- b) the distributive numerals *tigatló*, *tigápat* (cf. § 39).
- c) cardinal and ordinal distributives (cf. §§ 37, 38).

C. a diminution of the original meaning in,

- a) nouns with suffix *an* (cf. § 145, g).
- b) adjectives with prefix *ma* (cf. § 151, d).
- c) the verbal classes (cf. § 78).

Combined reduplication (4) indicates a greater degree of restriction than that implied by (2) in,

- a) restrictive numerals and names of money (cf. § 42, 51).
- b) nouns of individuality with prefixed *ka* (cf. § 149, a).

Various combinations of the different kinds of reduplication occur, in which case the meaning is that of both kinds combined, e. g.,

magkakanlulúhà, future of *magkanlulúhà* 'weep' (non-significant + future reduplication).

natotoyotoyô, present of *matoyotoyô* 'be very dry (intensive + present reduplication).

III. REPETITION.

§ 342. Closely connected with reduplication is the phenomenon of repetition. The various cases of repetition are the following, viz.:

- 1) without connective—
 - a) repetition of oblique sign case (cf. §§ 23, 228, 347).
 - b) doubled *sa* for *na sa* (cf. § 228).
- 2) with intervening ligature—
 - a) absolute superlative of adjectives and similar forms of some other parts of speech (cf. §§ 56, b; 58; 132).
 - b) two words connected by *na-ng* (cf. § 209).
 - c) double demonstrative with intervening noun (cf. § 165).

Full reduplication of a whole word or root is of course practically repetition (cf. § 341. 2).

IV. ELLIPSIS.

§ 343. An element of a sentence which has already been mentioned either in the same or a preceding sentence, is often omitted. The principal varieties of ellipsis are the following, viz.:

- 1) The omission of a modifier or word modified, e. g.,
 ang ibá'y maririkít (*pl.*) at ang ibá'y pánġit (*sing.*)
 'some are pretty and some are ugly.'
 may ibá pa-ng pamokpók at katám 'he has another hammer and another plane.'
 ang wíka-ng latín kun kastilà 'the Latin language or the Spanish language.'

Cf. also § 215.

- 2) The omission of the subject or agent: a subject or agent of the first or second person is usually not omitted unless it has been previously expressed in the same sentence, except with certain imperative forms (cf. § 250): when they are of the third person they are often omitted if they have been expressed in some previous sentence (cf. §§ 241, 242, 245).—e. g.,

huwág ka-ng mahiyâ at huwág matákot 'don't be ashamed and don't fear.'

inaasáhan mo namáng matibay na matibay at pina-nanaligan ang áting Panginóong Diós 'do you trust firmly and hope in our Lord God?'

3) The omission of the object of *may* or *walâ* (cf. § 241).

4) The omission of the whole or a portion of a predicate, e. g.,

akó man siyá man ay hindi rin 'it is neither he nor I.'
ang ibá'y maririkít at ang ibá'y hindi 'some are pretty and some are not.'

ang mangá háyop ay naoókol sa lúpà, ang mangá táwo ay sa Diós 'animals belong to the earth, man, to God.'

5) The omission of *ay*, e. g.,

ang iná ko'y buháy pa, ang áking amá patáy na 'my mother is still living, my father is dead.'

6) The omission of *at* in a series of more than two connected elements (cf. §§ 33, 337).

7) The omission of the second term of a comparison, e. g.

bákit ang anák mo'y hindi nagsasalitâ nang lalo-ng magaling nang wika-ng inglés 'why doesn't your son speak English better (than he does)?'

8) The omission of a clause, e. g.,

ibig ko sánà 'I should like to (if—).'

sapagká't akó'y may-sakit 'because I am sick.'

at kun kami'y magab'han sa dáan 'and if night overtakes us.'

V. THE ARTICLES.

THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.

§ 344. The forms of the definite article are rather signs of case than signs of determination, and while they usually indicate both, they frequently stand before indefinite nouns and pronouns. This article is sometimes used as a demonstrative pronoun (cf. § 183), as a compound relative (cf. §§ 27, 315, 316), and as a conjunction (cf. §§ 316, 317; also *nang*, *sa* §§ 346, 347).

§ 345. The nominative of the definite article, viz., *ang*, is regularly used with the subject of a sentence, when the subject is,

- a) a noun (except names of persons) or any word used as a noun, alone or with other modifiers, except in the case of a noun with preceding demonstrative adjective (cf. § 164).
- b) a possessive pronoun (cf. § 188).
- c) an indefinite pronoun or numeral (cf. § 188).
- d) a verb or quasi-verb and its adjuncts (cf. §§ 225, 232, 251).

A nominative absolute (cf. § 273) follows the rules for the subject.

a), b), c), and d) used as predicate may also take *ang* when the predicate denotes some particular person or thing; otherwise they stand without article (cf. § 216, 217).

Ang is also employed when the subject or predicate is the plural of a personal name (cf. § 47); and rarely when it is a demonstrative pronoun or noun modified by a preceding demonstrative adjective (cf. § 26, 165).

Ang in connection with a preceding relative pronoun may indicate the genitive of the relative (cf. § 314).

For the use of *ang* in exclamatory expressions cf. § 295.

Ang is sometimes used instead of the ligature with the subject of the verb after *may* or *walâ* (cf. § 271).

Ang is usually not employed with a noun used as an appositive (cf. § 175); it is not used with verbal forms made with any of the primary subsidiary particles except *ka—an* and *paka* (cf. § 247).

Ang is sometimes omitted with an indefinite subject (cf. § 274).

§ 346. The genitive of the definite article, viz., *nang*, forms the genitive case of all words, except personal names in the singular, personal pronouns, the interrogative *sino*, and (usually) demonstrative pronouns (cf. §§ 47, 25, 28, 26). It stands before the direct object of an active verb, and the indirect object of the *i* or *an* passive, even when these are indefinite (cf. §§ 243, 245). It may stand before an adverb after a verb (cf. § 259).

It is also employed as a conjunction (cf. §§ 137, 325, 327).

Nang, the genitive of the definite article, must be carefully distinguished from *nang*, the adverb *na* 'now, already' plus the ligature. In this grammar the latter is always written *na-ng*.—e. g.,
ilán na-ng taón 'how many years.'

§ 347. The oblique case of the definite article viz., *sa*, forms the oblique case of all words except personal names in the singular and, usually, demonstrative pronouns (cf. §§ 47, 26).

The sign of the oblique case is sometimes doubled, e. g.,
sa sa tapát ninyó 'before you.'
isá pa sa doón 'one thing besides that.'
sa dito 'here.'

Cf. also *sa kantino* § 28.

Instead of using *sa* twice, *kay sa*, is sometimes employed, e. g.,
ibá ang tinitingnán (tingín) kay sa tinitigan 'there is a difference between one who is looked at and one upon whom the vision is fixed.'

Double *sa*, viz., *sa sa*, may be used for *na sa*, *na sa kay* and *na sa kaná*, for *na kay* and *na kaná* respectively (cf. § 228).

Sa followed by a partially reduplicated noun or root indicates 'to stay in a place, to be doing something which is displeasing to the speaker.' The oblique case constitutes the predicate of a simple copulative sentence.—e. g.,

sa bubúkid ka 'you stayed in the field.'

sa titingín ka 'you kept on looking.'

Sa is also employed as a conjunction (cf. § 137), in exclamations (cf. § 295), and as a prefix in the formation of fractional numerals (cf. § 36).

THE PERSONAL AND INCLUSIVE ARTICLES.

§ 348. The personal article *si* is used as follows, viz.:

a) With proper names of persons and animals, e. g.,

si Pédro, 'Pedro.'

si María, 'Maria.'

si Sampága 'a dog so named.'

b) With names of persons preceded by a title (cf. § 175),

e. g.,

si póong San José 'Lord St. José.'

- si kapitán Fernández '*Capitan* Fernandez.'
- si gat Luís '*Don* Luis.'

c) With certain nouns of relationship and the nouns in § 149, d, usually to express the respect or affection of an inferior for a superior, being about equivalent to the definite article plus the possessive of the first person, e. g.,

- si amá 'Father, my father.'
- si iná 'Mother, my mother.'
- si panginóon 'Master, my master.'
- si katúbig 'my drinking companion.'

These are equal to *ang amá ko*, etc.

The nouns of relationship *kamag'anak*, *hinlóg* 'relative,' *bianán* 'father-in-law,' *inaamá* 'god-father,' *iniiná* 'mother-in-law,' always take the definite article.

When a person speaks of a younger relative the definite article must be employed, e. g.,

- ang áking* anák 'my son,'

except in the case of

- si bongso 'my youngest.'

d) In connection with a possessive adjective not referring to the speaker to express ridicule and mockery, e. g.,
si amá mo 'your rascal of a father.'

e) with the nouns *amá* and *iná* modified by the names of the first born as in § 174, e, e. g.,

- si amá-ng María 'the father of Maria.'
- si iná-ng Juan 'the mother of Juan.'

A parent may be called by the name of the first-born either thus, or by prefixing the particles, *a*, *a-ng*, *pan*; *i* to the child's name (cf. §§ 23, 164).

Si may be omitted with the predicate of a simple copulative sentence (cf. § 217), and after a ligature not a relative pronoun or conjunction (cf. §§ 165, 175), but it may also be employed in both these cases.

The plural of a personal name may be indicated like that of a common noun, e. g., *ang manḡá Pédro* 'Pedros,' (cf. § 47), or better by circumlocutions such as, e. g.,

ang mangá { tinatáwag na
pinangangálang } Pédro 'those called Pedro.'

ang laháť na si Pédro ang ngálan 'all whose names are Pedro.'

ang magkalagyó-ng si Pédro 'two namesakes called Pedro.'

ang magkalagyó-ng siná Pédro 'three or more called Pedro.'

The inclusive article *siná* is used before proper names of persons, and has also some of the other uses of *sí*, e. g.,

siná ali 'my aunt and her family.'

In the constructions of coordinated nouns and pronouns, it denotes that there are three or more in the group (cf. §§ 182, 191).

THE INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

§ 349. The indefinite article may be used before an indefinite noun or pronoun that denotes an individual or unit (cf. § 274).

VI. PRONOUNS.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§ 350. The personal pronouns in the nominative may stand as the subject or predicate of a sentence, after certain prepositions which are practically conjunctions (cf. § 210), and after the particle *ga* (cf. § 123).

The genitives with a noun, pronoun, adjective or preposition are practically possessive adjectives (cf. §§ 172, 189, 199, 210). With verbs they are used as agents of the passive (cf. § 245). In connection with a preceding relative pronoun, it may indicate the genitive of the relative (cf. § 314). The prepositive genitives used as possessive pronouns (cf. § 25) may have the various uses of the nouns they represent.

The prepositive genitive corresponds in many of its uses to the oblique case of a noun (cf. § 177, 245, 217, 219).

The oblique case has in general the same use as the oblique of the noun it represents; it is always used when the pronoun is the object of a verb (cf. § 243).

Note the following uses of special pronouns.

- 1) *Tayó* includes, *kami* excludes, the person addressed, e. g.,
tayó-ng mangá Kastilá 'we Spaniards (Spaniard addressing
a Spaniard).'

kami-ng mangá Kastilá 'we Spaniards (Spaniard addressing
a Filipino, American, etc.).'

- 2) *katá*, *kitá*, besides being dual, are used as follows, viz.:

- a) As the subject of passive verbs, containing both subject
and agent of the action, being equivalent to 'you ...
by me,' e. g.,

sinisintá katá = ikáw ay sinisintá ko 'I love you (you
are loved by me).'

hahampásin katá 'I will beat you.'

doón babayáran kitá 'I will pay you there.'

- b) As a pronoun of self-address, in complaining or lamen-
ting, being practically equivalent to the first person 'I,' e. g.,
kitá'y anak ni Adán, anó-ng dí ipagkakasála sa Diós.

'you (= I) are a son of Adam, how can you
help sinning against God?'

kitá-ng táwo-ng makasalánan 'you sinner = sinner
that I am.'

- 3) The plural of the pronouns of the second and third
persons is sometimes used for the singular to indicate respect.
The third person plural is used for the second person singular
in very respectful address (cf. 4, below).—e. g.,

pumanhík kayó = pumanhík ka 'come up.'

ang wikáin mo doón na itó nḡa ang hinahánap nilá-ng
(= niyá-ng) kagab'í 'say there that this is what he
was looking for yesterday.'

- 4) The pronouns denoting address, are often accompanied
by *pô* 'sir,' 'ma'am' to indicate respect. *Pô* follows *ikáw* and
ka, and *kayó* at the beginning of a sentence, but precedes
kayó when this pronoun follows any part of its predicate.—e. g.,

ikáw po'y pumanhík } 'come up sir.'

pumanhík ka pô }
kayó po'y pumanhík }
pumanhík pô kayó } 'come up sir, gentlemen (sg. or pl).'

silá po'y umupô 'will your Excellency sit down.'

Pô is very often used alone parenthetically, like English 'sir,' 'ma'am,' e. g.,

akó po'y si Matéo 'I, sir, am Mateo.'

óo pô 'yes sir.'

walâ pô 'there is none sir.'

A noun is sometimes used in address instead of a pronoun, e. g.,
pípi bagá itó-ng bátà 'are you dumb (is this boy dumb)?'
matamád na matamád itó-ng táwo 'what a lazy fellow
you are (this man is very lazy)!'

5) *Siyá*, besides being employed as the pronoun of the third person singular, masculine or feminine, is used:—

a) followed by the ligature as a compound relative pronoun, either alone or preceded by the article *ang* (cf. § 27);

b) with various postpositive adverbs to form certain idioms, e. g.,

siyá na 'it is enough.'

siyá nãa 'surely, of course, yes indeed.'

siyá nawâ 'let it be so, amen.'

6) Instead of the possessive pronouns preceded by the article (cf. § 25), *ang*+oblique case may be employed, e. g.,
ang sa ákin 'mine.'

ang sa kaniyá 'his.'

7) The reflexive pronouns are represented by the personal pronouns in connection with *din* or *sarili*, e. g.,

akó'y ungmiibig sa ákin din 'I love myself.'

silá'y hindi gungmagamót sa kanilá-ng sarili 'they do not heal themselves.'

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 351. The demonstratives as pronouns have in general the various uses of the nouns they represent. The nominative may stand after the quasi-verb *na*, instead of the oblique (cf. § 224). The genitives of certain demonstratives are used as adverbs of time; the obliques of all demonstratives, as adverbs of place (cf. §§ 121. 1, 122).

As adjectives they modify nouns, and pronouns which have nominal modifiers, according to § 165.

Note the following additional points.

1) A demonstrative may stand before a clause of direct quotation as the equivalent of the clause (cf. § 323).

2) A demonstrative sometimes indicates or emphasizes the case of a relative pronoun (cf. §§ 313, 314).

3) A demonstrative pronoun or adjective, standing as the whole or part of the direct object of an active verb, when this object is something capable of division, has an indefinite meaning, viz., 'some of this, that,' e. g.,

uminúm kayó nitó 'drink some of this.'

akó'y kungmakáin na niyáng lamangkáti 'I am eating some of that meat.'

pumitás ka niyóng mangá bulaklák 'pluck some of those flowers.'

The genitive of a demonstrative after *may* and *walâ* has a similar meaning (cf. § 229). A demonstrative may stand as the whole or part of an object in its definite meaning, provided the subject is specially emphasized, e. g.,

akó nga ang babása nitó-ng líbro 'I am the one who will read this book.'

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 352. A simple relative pronoun is used to join a clause which has the value of an adjective to a preceding noun or pronoun, its antecedent (cf. §§ 311. 1—314). The case of the relative is indicated by something in the relative clause. The relative is nominative when its antecedent is the logical subject of the relative clause. When the verb in the relative clause is passive, the relative, though grammatically the subject of the clause, corresponds to the English relative in the objective case, or after prepositions. In clauses containing a quasi-verb meaning 'to have' the relative corresponds to the English objective relative, when it is the logical object of the idea 'to have.' The genitive and oblique are indicated by an article or pronoun in the relative clause referring back to the antecedent.

A compound relative pronoun includes both antecedent and relative. A clause introduced by a compound relative is prac-

tically a noun and has the various constructions of a noun, the article being varied to express case (cf. §§ 315—318).

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 353. An interrogative pronoun may stand as predicate of a sentence, or in the genitive or oblique like the noun it represents, but it cannot be used as subject of a sentence; the prepositive genitive of *sino* is used as adjective and pronoun like the prepositive genitives of the personal pronouns (cf. § 28). All interrogative pronouns may be used as adjectives to modify nouns and pronouns with nominal construction (cf. §§ 166, 189).

An interrogative pronoun in the nominative case, standing as predicate in a simple copulative sentence, a sentence containing the quasi-verb *na* 'be' or its negative *walâ*, or one containing an active verbal form, corresponds to the English nominative interrogative. When the verb of the sentence is passive the interrogative corresponds to the English interrogative in the objective case or after prepositions. When the sentence contains a quasi-verb meaning 'to have,' the interrogative corresponds to the English nominative or objective according as it indicates the possessor or the thing possessed. See §§ 222, 225, 231, 255.

The genitive and oblique cases of the interrogatives are used mainly though not exclusively in sentences with non-verbal predicate (cf. §§ 222, 226), the corresponding case relations in verbal sentences being ordinarily represented as above by the nominative and the passive.

When the oblique cases of interrogative pronouns and adjectives stand in verbal sentences, they usually come first, and may take the adverbial construction in § 262, e. g.,

sa kaníno sasalúbong ka 'whom are you going to meet?'
sa kaníno bagá hungmahampás ang iyó-ng amá 'whom
does your father beat?'

kaníno ka bagá hungmingí nang táwad 'whom did you
ask for pardon?'

lában kaníno nanhimagsík (bagsík) ang mangá Tagálog
'against whom did the Tagalogs rebel?'

sa anó mo kinakailángan iyáng upóan 'for what do you need that chair?'

sa aling táwo doón ibibigáy itó 'to which man there is this to be given?'

sa anó-ng tapáyan isisilíd ko itó 'in what sort of a jar shall I put this?'

An interrogative pronoun is sometimes used in a sentence in the same construction as the word it stands for, e. g.,

nagpanggáp síno siyá? siyá'y nagpanggáp oficial (cf. § 244)
'whom did he impersonate? he impersonated an official.'

ihinólog bagá nino itó 'this was thrown down by whom?'

§ 354. Note the following special points with reference to the interrogative pronouns.

1) *Kanino* is the common genitive form in the singular; *nino* is employed only,

a) after *a-* 'say' (cf. § 234),

b) absolutely in repeating a question as to possession, when the first answer is not understood, or to represent a genitive in a preceding statement about which further information is desired, e. g.,

1st Q. kanino-ng báhay itó 'whose house is this?'
A. kay António 'Antonio's.'

2nd Q. nino 'whose (did you say)?'

1st Sent. gagaw'in na itó 'this has to be done.'
Q. nino 'by whom?'

c) rarely in a verbal sentence as above § 353 end.

The genitive case of the other interrogatives is also sometimes used in a way similar to *nino* in (b), e. g.,

1st Sent. ang páa nang gadyá 'the foot of an elephant.'

Q. nang anó 'of what?' (*the genitive in the first statement not having been heard or not having been understood*).

2) *Ikailán* is used of order in a series either of space or time, e. g.,

ikailán ka sa escuelahán 'how do you stand in school?'

ikailán na tayó ngay'ón 'what day is it (are we) today?'

3) *Anó*, especially when preceded by *ay* or *at*, is used in the sense of 'what about,' e. g.,

at anó ang úsap mo 'what about your law-suit?'

ay anó ang salapî 'what about the money?'

4) *Anó* followed by the genitive is used in questions regarding relationship, e. g.,

anó ka nitó-ng babáyi 'what relation are you to this woman?'

anó mo itó-ng táwo 'what relation is this man to you?'

5) For *anó* in exclamatory expressions cf. § 295.

6) *Ilán* is also an indefinite pronoun 'some.' The other interrogative pronouns are sometimes used as indefinites especially in conditional sentences (cf. § 332). *Anoanó* is used indefinitely after *walâ* meaning 'without flaw,' 'without reason,' e. g.,

walâ-ng anoanó ang gawá-ng itó 'this work is without flaw.'

tinampál akó niyá walâ-ng anoanó 'he slapped me without the least reason.'

7) In inquiring the price of anything, *magkanó* means 'how much for all of it,' *magkakanó*, 'how much for a certain portion, one, a pound, a dozen, etc.,' e. g.,

magkanó itó 'how much is this (all of it)?'

magkakanó ang mangá itlóg 'how much are eggs?'

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

§ 355. Indefinite pronouns have in general the same use and construction as the noun they represent. When modifying a noun or pronoun they have in general the construction of descriptive adjectives (cf. §§ 167, 189). Some of them, however, have other constructions (cf. §§ 184, 186).

Note the following special points.

1) 'Other' in general is expressed by *ibá*; 'other' meaning 'one of two' may also be expressed by *isá*.—e. g.,

ibá-ng bágay 'another thing.'

ang ibá-ng babáyi 'the other woman.'

isá-ng hokbô lában namán sa isa 'one army against the other.'

The correlative pronouns 'some—some (others)' may be expressed by *ang ibá—ang ibá*, *ang mangá isá—ang mangá ibá*, e. g.,

ang ibá'y magagandá, ang ibá'y mangá pángit 'some are beautiful, some are ugly.'

Ibá followed by the oblique case of a personal pronoun is used in the sense of 'not akin,' e. g.,

ibá sa ákin siyá 'he is not related to me.'

naaaláman mo na ang kaniyá-ng asáwa ay hindî ibá sa ákin 'do you know that his wife is related to me (not unrelated to me)?'

Ibá is also employed as a preposition (cf. § 134).

2) *Kapuwâ* 'both' is adverbial in character and has often the construction of an adverb; it means rather 'one the same as the other;' it may stand in apposition with a personal pronoun as in § 186.—e. g.,

kapuwâ silá'y nagkakamukhá 'both of them look alike.'

kapuwá'y nagkakaibigán 'both love one another.'

si Elvíra ni Matilde ay kapuwâ silá-ng ungmális kangína 'Elvira and Matilde both departed a little while ago.'

si Juan at si Luís, kapuwá'y nagsusulátan 'Juan and Luis correspond with one another.'

Kapuwâ is also used in reference to one person in the sense of 'likewise, one just like, fellow, neighbor.' When used adjectively in this sense it stands before the noun it modifies without ligature, nor is the ligature employed after a post-positive word inserted between the two: it forms with its noun a single idea and is preceded by the nominal modifiers which come before the noun.—e. g.,

kapuwâ ka-ng paroroón sa Pólo 'you likewise are to go to Polo.'

ang bulág ay díli mangyári-ng sundán nang kapuwâ bulág 'the blind man can not be led by his blind fellow.'

ang kanilá-ng mangá kapuwâ táwo 'their fellow men, neighbors.'

akó'y ungmiibig sa kapuwâ ko táwo 'I love my fellow man, neighbor.'

3) The pronouns meaning 'all' differ somewhat in their signification: while they are all more or less interchangeable, *lahát* and *tanán* refer rather to individuals, indicating the

plural; *dilán* refers to sort or kind; *pisan* means 'all' in the sense of 'nothing but;' *páwà* refers to individuals, but is usually employed in the predicate of the noun it modifies as a sort of apposition 'all of them,' and is joined by the ligature to the following word; *bód* means 'complete, entire, in every respect;' the forms *taná*, *dilá* are used adjectively instead of *tanán*, *dilán* when some postpositive word is inserted between the pronoun and the noun it modifies.—e. g.,

ang laháť na táwo 'all the men.'

ang tanáng táwo (= ang sangkatawóhan) 'all mankind.'

ang diláng búnga 'all kinds of fruit.'

písang bulaklák 'all, nothing but flowers.'

páwa-ng mapuputí silá 'they are all of them white.'

ang páwa-ng haláman 'all plants.'

bóo-ng tinápay 'all the bread.'

pinsáng bóo 'own (complete) cousin.'

sa taná ko-ng lóob 'with all my heart.'

nang dilá niyá-ng anák 'of all his sons.'

For the various combinations of *lahát* cf. §§ 167, 184, 186.

4) The pronouns meaning 'more' and 'less' are used in stating approximate ages, in the sense of 'more, less with respect to age' (cf. § 183), e. g.,

ang kapatíd ko'y kúlang sa labí-ng ánim na taón 'my brother is less than sixteen years (old).'

ang áking kapatíd na bunsó'y mahígit na sa waló-ng buwán 'my little brother is now more than eight months (old).'

ang pinsán ko'y lábis nang dalawá-ng taón sa ákin 'my cousin is two years older than I.'

For these pronouns with following dependent nominative cf. § 185.

5) *Sarili* as a pronoun, either alone or modified by a possessive adjective, signifies 'self,' e. g.,

ang táwo-ng tampalásan ay walá-ng kúha-ng (cf. § 411)
tamó sa sarili 'the wicked man is of no use to himself.'

iniisip ko sa áking sarili 'I think to myself.'

As an adjective, either alone or accompanied by a possessive adjective, it signifies 'own,' e. g.,

sa sarili-ng kasiraán 'to his own destruction.'

sa sarili mo-ng kataw'án 'to your own body.'

As an adjective before a possessive pronoun, it emphasizes the idea of possession, e. g.,

ang sarili-ng ákin 'that which is my own, that which I have.'

The emphatic English pronouns 'myself, himself,' etc. in apposition to a pronoun or noun, are expressed by the affirmative adverbs, especially *din*, after the pronoun or noun, e. g.,

akó rin 'I myself.'

ikáw din 'you yourself.'

siyá rin 'he himself.'

Sarili and *din* may be used together, e. g.,

ang sarili mo ring ári 'your very own possession.'

6) *Ganán* is also used as a preposition, and its pronominal and prepositional uses are often confused, e. g.,

múha ka nang ganán sa ákin; nang ganáng íbig mo
'take what belongs to me; what you want.'

anó-ng ganán kay Mr. Reynolds 'what is that about Mr. Reynolds?'

ang pagbabayáran niyá'y ang sa ganáng sangtaón 'he will pay a year's rent (that which pertains to a year).'

7) 'Every' in time expressions is indicated by *bálang*, by full reduplication of a noun of time, or by the conjunction *túwi-ng* used before a noun of time (cf. § 31); the noun after *túwi-ng* may be modified by a cardinal. These expressions are used absolutely as adverbs, or may be preceded by *sa*.—e. g.,

pasasaescuéla (cf. § 409, 3) ka bagá túwi-ng Juéves 'do
you go to school every Thursday?'

akó'y napapadoón araw'araw 'I go every day.'

dinadálaw niyá siyá sa túwi-ng dalawá-ng araw 'he visits
her every two days.'

bálang ikalawá-ng araw 'every two days.'

8) A word or root which the speaker does not remember or for any reason does not wish to mention is represented by *kuán* 'so and so,' which has the same construction as the word or root in question would have, e. g.,

ang kuán 'such and such a thing.'

si kuán 'such and such a person.'

kungmukuán siyá 'she is becoming so and so.'

magpakuán ka sa kaniyá 'order him so and so.'

nakikikuán siyá 'he meddles in such and such a thing.'

9) For the use of the pronouns of similarity, *pára*, etc., cf. §§ 184, 185, 197, 265, 277. Clauses introduced by a conjunction containing one of these pronouns (cf. § 326) are similar to relative clauses depending on the pronoun.

VII. NUMERALS.

CARDINALS AND FRACTIONS.

§ 356. The cardinals and fractions as pronouns and adjectives, have in general the same use as nouns or indefinite pronominal adjectives respectively (cf. §§ 33, 36, 168, 170, 187, 188, 189). Fractions ending in *bahági* have the same use as nouns (cf. § 170).

Note the following additional points in the use of the cardinals.

1) Cardinal numerals are added by means of the conjunction *at* 'and, plus,' e. g.,

dalawá't dalawá'y ápat 'two and two are four.'

2) They are multiplied by placing the ligature between them, e. g.,

dalawá-ng dalawá'y ápat 'twice two (two two's) are four.'

A distributive may be used instead of one or the other of the multiplied cardinals, e. g.,

ápat na tiglilimá 'four times five.'

tiglilimá-ng waló 'five times eight.'

3) A cardinal that indicates a collective idea rather than a number of individual parts may be preceded by the indefinite article, e. g.,

isá-ng dalawá-ng píses 'a couple of pesos.'

4) *Isá* besides being a cardinal, is used as the indefinite article (cf. § 23), as an indefinite pronoun 'one, other' (cf. §§ 30, 355), as an ordinal (cf. § 117).

ORDINALS.

§ 357. The ordinals usually modify nouns and pronouns as adjectives, but they may also stand as pronouns in the same constructions as the nouns they represent (cf. §§ 35, 169, 184, 188, 189).

Note the following points.

1) The ordinals are used without article in the enumeration of chapters, e. g.,

kabanáta-ng ikalawá 'chapter second.'

ikatló-ng kabanáta 'chapter third.'

2) The ordinals and *ikailán* are employed in giving the day of the week, month, or year. The day enumerated may be followed by the genitive of a larger unit of time. The expression containing the ordinal is used as predicate, the subject being either personal or impersonal.—e. g.,

ikalabí-ng tatló ngay'ón 'today is the thirteenth.'

ikailáng araw ngay'ón nang buwáng itó 'what day of the month is it today?'

ikailán tayó ngay'ón 'what day is it (are we) today?'

ikatló-ng araw ngay'ón tayó 'this is the third.'

ikalimá-ng araw ngay'ón nitó-ng linggó 'today is the fifth day of this week.'

3) An ordinal modified by a genitive may constitute the predicate of a sentence, e. g.,

ikalawá ko si Pédro 'Pedro is the second after me.'

4) On the use of *ikalawá* after *may* and *walâ* in comparisons cf. § 288.

DISTRIBUTIVES.

§ 358. Distributives, while they may be used as pronouns and adjectives (cf. § 171) like the cardinals and ordinals, have usually a more or less adverbial construction. Note the following points.

1) The distributives formed by reduplicating the cardinals may stand, either alone or with modified nouns, as predicate in a sentence whose subject is a verbal idea, e. g.,

isaisá ang pagbibigáy ko ngúni't ang áking panginóon ay tatlotatló ang pagbibigáy 'I give (them) away one by one, but my master gives (them) three at a time.'

tatlotatló-ng taón ang maliban 'let three years pass between each time.'

2) The distributives made by reduplicating the ordinals are usually employed in connection with a noun of time as the predicate of a sentence, e. g.,

ikaikailáng áraw ang lagnát 'what is the period of the fever (every how many days)?'

ikaikatló-ng áraw 'every three days.'

3) The cardinals and ordinals modified by *báwa't* and *bálang* form series of distributive numerals which have about the same meaning and use as these cardinal and ordinal distributives, e. g.,

bálang isá } 'every, each one.'

báwa't isá }

bálang dalawá } 'every two.'

báwa't dalawá }

bálang ikalawá 'every second one.'

bálang ikatló 'every third one.'

4) The distributives with prefixed *tig* and the nouns with prefixed *man* (cf. § 153) have similar constructions. Like the distributives of the reduplicated class, they may stand as predicate in a sentence whose subject is a verbal idea; with *tig'ilán* the verbal subject may be preceded by *kun* instead of the article; otherwise they have the usual constructions of pronouns.—e. g.,

tig'ilán ang pamamahági niyá nang kandíla 'into how many apiece did he divide the candles?'

tig'isá ang ibinigáy niyá sa mangá laláki 'he gave one each to the men.'

nagbigáy akó nang tigpipitó 'I gave seven to each.'

opahán mo silá nang manalapi 'pay them a *salapi* apiece.'

ang mangá plúma'y tig'ilán kung ibigáy mo 'how many pens did you give to each?'

tig'ilán kun pagbibigáy mo nang salapí sa mangá bátà
mo 'how much money did you give to each of
your boys?'

mamíso ang pagbibigáy ko 'I gave them each a peso.'

5) These distributives used as adjectives and their noun
may stand in the same constructions as the pronouns in (4),
e. g.,

tigalawá-ng písos ang ibinigáy mo sa kanilá 'I gave them
two pesos apiece.'

tigililimá-ng písos ang kában 'each *kaban* is worth five
pesos.'

6) For distributives modifying a dependent nominative cf.
§ 174, d. The unreduplicated distributive forms like *tiglimá*
are used in this construction to indicate the stamped or
coined value of anything.—e. g.,

salapí-ng tiglimá-ng písos 'a coin worth five pesos.'

séyo-ng tiglabí-ng limá-ng séntimos 'a fifteen-cent stamp.'

7) For the use of these distributives in multiplication cf.
§ 356.

RESTRICTIVE NUMERALS.

§ 359. These have in general the same use as the numerals
from which they are derived. They may also be expressed
by the simple numerals modified by the adverb *lámang* 'only,'
or the restrictives themselves may be followed by this adverb
to emphasize the restrictive meaning, e. g.,

isá lámang	}	'only one.'
iisá		
iisá lámang		
iisaisá		
iisaisá lámang	}	'only once.'
minsán lámang		
miminsán		
miminsán lámang		
miminsanminsán		
miminsanminsán lámang		

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

§ 360. The numeral adverbs follow in general the constructions of other adverbs. Those with prefix *maka* are used also in bartering one article for another to indicate how many times one is worth the other; they may be followed by the genitive of the article enumerated (cf. § 203 end); 'just as much' is indicated by *magsukat* in the same construction.—e. g.,

makailán *iyáng* langís 'what (how many times something else) [do you ask] for that oil?'

makapówò nang pálay 'ten times as much unhusked rice.'

maikatló nang bigás 'three times as much husked rice.'

magsukat nang pálay 'just as much unhusked rice.'

VIII. NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

§ 361. A noun may stand as the subject of a sentence with either verbal or non-verbal predicate (cf. §§ 216; 217, 224, 229, 242); it may be the predicate, in nominative or oblique case, of a simple copulative sentence (cf. §§ 217—219); in its various case forms it may depend on another word, noun, pronoun, adjective, quasi-verb, verb, adverb, or preposition (cf. §§ 174, 176, 177, 183, 184, 185, 192, 193, 198, 199, 203, 210, 224, 229, 243—248); an abstract noun is used in a peculiar way in exclamations (cf. § 295); the nominative may be used absolutely at the beginning of a sentence (cf. § 273).

An adjective may stand as the predicate of a simple copulative sentence (cf. § 217), or it may modify a noun or pronoun (cf. §§ 173, 189); an adjective may also be used as an adverb (cf. § 130).

The relation between noun and adjective is very close; practically any adjective may be used a noun (cf. § 201); the various classes of derivative nouns are sometimes nouns, sometimes adjectives, sometimes both (cf. §§ 141—162); almost any noun is capable of being used as an adjective, e. g.,

gintó-ng panúlat 'gold pen' (better according to § 174, b).

ang karaníwan niyá-ng pagsasalitâ 'his customary manner of speaking.'

ang kaniyá-ng kadatíhang asál 'his usual custom.'

ang may-kapangyarihang táwo 'the man who has power or authority.'

Derivative nouns and adjectives with regard to their meaning may be classed approximately as:—

- 1) Participles (cf. § 141).
- 2) Frequentatives (cf. §§ 142; 143; 145, e; 146, f, g; 149, c; 151, e, f; 157; 162, a, b).
- 3) Simple descriptive adjectives (cf. §§ 149, f; 151, a, b, c).
- 4) Superlative adjectives (cf. § 150, d).
- 5) Nouns and adjectives of equality (cf. § 149, e; 160).
- 6) Nouns of likeness (cf. §§ 146, 147).
- 7) Associative nouns, indicating a companion (cf. § 149, b, c, d).
- 8) Nouns of individuality (cf. § 149, a).
- 9) Nouns of entirety (cf. § 159).
- 10) Abstract nouns of action (cf. § 144).
- 11) Abstract nouns of state or stative abstracts (cf. §§ 150, a, b, c, e, f; 156).
- 12) Objective nouns, indicating the object or effect of on action (cf. §§ 146, e; 147, e; 148).
- 13) Nouns of place (cf. §§ 145, a, b, c, f; 150, g; 157).
- 14) Nouns of instrument (cf. § 158).
- 15) Nouns indicating possession (cf. § 154).
- 16) Distributive nouns and adjectives (cf. §§ 146, c; 153).
- 17) Correlative nouns of relationship (cf. § 152).
- 18) Nouns indicating origin (cf. § 162).
- 19) Nouns indicating time or season (cf. § 161).
- 20) Augmentatives (cf. § 145, d).
- 21) Diminutives (cf. §§ 145, g; 151, d).

§ 362. Derivative nouns when used as nouns have in general the same constructions as simple nouns. When used as positive or superlative descriptive adjectives, they follow the construction of *ma* adjectives. Note the following special points; the numbers refer to the classification in the last paragraph.

- 1) For participles cf. § 416.
- 2) The frequentatives of disease in § 146, f, denote 'to

suffer habitually from such and such a disease; 'to have an attack of the disease' is indicated by the *in* passive of the root.—e. g.,

akó'y piyóhin 'I suffer with the gout.'

akó'y pinipiyo 'I have an attack of gout.'

akó'y gagalisín yátà 'I think I am going to have the itch.'

The adjectives of ability may also be expressed by the future of the auxiliary *mangyári* 'be able' followed by the passive of the root, e. g., *manyayári-ng gaw'in* = *magagawá* 'feasible.'

3, 4) For the construction of descriptive adjectives cf. § 361 and §§ 192—198.

5) For the construction of adjectives of equality §§ 199, 200, 277, 280, 296.

7) Certain of the nouns of companionship may be followed by an infinitive (cf. § 179) or oblique case to denote that with respect to which the companionship exists, e. g.,

kasálo-ng kumáin } 'companion in eating.'

kasálo sa pagkáin }

kasálò sa dúlang 'companion at table.'

kasáma sa mangá kahirápan 'companion in hardship.'

Some of these nouns may be used practically as prepositions, being followed by the nominative case; these phrases may be joined to what precedes by the ligature. These nouns may also be followed by the genitive.—e. g.,

kasabáy ang mangá lúhà 'together with tears.'

ang lahát nang itó ay nangagkakaisá sa pananatili sa pananalángin na kasáma ang mangá babáyi 'all of them continued in prayer together with the women.'

ginawá nang anluwági ang lamésa kasabáy nang upoán 'the carpenter made the table and the chair too.'

8) For the construction of nouns of individuality with numerals, cf. § 168.

10) For the various constructions of abstract nouns of action cf. § 417.

11) The stative abstracts may form a plural like simple nouns, e. g.,

mangá kabutihán 'beauties.'

Followed by *pa* they constitute the predicate of a sentence in the sense of 'to be still characterized by what the root indicates,' e. g.,

kalakásan pa 'he is still in his strength, still strong.'

kabutíhan pa 'she is still in her beauty.'

When used as object of the quasi-verb *may* in connection with the adverb *din*, the construction denotes 'to have some measure of the quality which the abstract indicates.' When the abstract is modified by following *muntî* or *muntî-ng muntî*, it denotes 'to have the quality in small or very small measure;' with *walâ* in place of *may*, it denotes 'not to have it at all.' The root of the abstract may have partial or full reduplication when the subject of *may* or *walâ* is plural.—e. g.,

may karunúnġan din 'he has some knowledge, knows something.'

may karunúnġan ding muntî 'he knows little.'

may karunúnġan ding muntî-ng muntî 'he knows very little.'

walâ-ng karunúnġan din 'he knows nothing at all.'

may karurunúnġan ding muntî 'they know little.'

Those abstracts which denote 'material enough for' may be modified by the cardinals to denote 'material for so and so many,' and may be followed by a noun denoting material in the construction described in § 174, e. g.,

dalawá-ng kabaróan 'material for two shirts.'

apát na katapisáng kambáyá 'enough *cambayas* (a sort of cotton stuff) for four *tápis* (a sort of overskirt).'

Abstract nouns with prefix *pagka* followed by the genitive may denote 'since that expressed by the genitive was that expressed by the primary noun,' e. g.,

pagkabátà ko 'since I was a boy.'

pagkatáwo ko 'since I was a man.'

The verbal abstracts corresponding to the nouns of superior limit with *pagka*, indicate the change in process, e. g.,

pagka-lakí nang túbig 'height of the tide.'

pag-lakí nang túbig 'rising of the tide.'

pagka-kasirá nang káhoy 'destruction of the wood.'

pag-kasirá nang káhoy 'destroying of the wood.'

13) The nouns of place denoting measures (cf. § 145, b) are used to indicate the capacity of vessels, e. g.,

ilanán } { itó-ng tapáyan 'how much
magkanohán } { does this jar hold?'

sang'apatán 'four gantas (it is a measure of four gantas).'

The nouns of place denoting a wager (cf. § 145, b) may constitute a complete sentence, e. g.,

salapían 'I wager half a peso.'

patáyan 'let us wager our life.'

The nouns of place in § 145, f may be followed by an oblique of place where, e. g.,

ang sabíhan sa báyan 'what is spoken of in the town.'

ang osápan sa Maynilà 'what is discussed in Manila.'

The nouns of place in § 150, g, constitute the predicate of a sentence; they may be followed by a genitive of the agent, an oblique of place where, and by an infinitive.—e. g.

kapurihán nang lahat si Pédro 'Pedro is the one whom all praise.'

kasabihán si Juán sa báyan 'Juan is the one of whom all in the town are speaking.'

karongsoláng tingnán si María 'Maria is the one upon whom all look.'

15) For the construction of nouns with *may* denoting possession cf. § 232.

16) The distributive nouns and adjectives have the same constructions as the distributive numerals with prefix *tig* (cf. § 358, 4—7).

17) Correlative nouns of relationship standing without modifier are practically plural, and may stand as apposition or predicate to a plural, e. g.,

silá-ng magpanginóon 'they, master and servant.'

silá-ng magkakasáma 'they, companions.'

mag'asáwa kayó 'are you husband and wife?'

magpanginóon kayâ yaóng dalawá katáwo 'are those two men master and servant?'

For other constructions of these nouns cf. § 182.

18) The derivatives of origin from *saán* 'where?' *anó* 'what?' necessarily constitute the predicate of a sentence; the nominal

derivatives may stand as predicate, but not necessarily so.—
e. g.,

tagasaán } ka 'where are you from?'
tagaanó }
akó'y taga-Maynilà 'I am from Manila.'

sinibát siyá nang mangá tagaroón 'he was stabbed by the
inhabitants of that place.'

20) The augmentatives in § 145, d, may also be expressed by the primary noun combined with the adjective *malakí*, in the construction in § 174, e. g.,

ang táwo-ng malakí-ng ólo *for* ang táwo-ng olohán

With roots that have no augmentatives the augmentative idea can be expressed only by *malakí*, e. g.,

malakí-ng laláki 'a big man.'

malakí-ng háyop 'a large animal.'

21) The diminutive nouns in § 145, g, may also be expressed by the primary noun modified by *muntî* 'small,' e. g.,

báhay na muntî = bahaybaháyan 'little house.'

The diminutive force of the adjectives in § 151, d, may be increased by using the adverb *kauntî* 'a little' as a modifier, e. g.,

maasimasím na kauntî 'a little sour.'

§ 363. Certain of the derivative particles may be combined with whole phrases and clauses.

The particles *ka—an*, *pagka*, and *sangka—an* may be combined with nouns preceded by the negatives *dî* and *walâ*. The negatives of the verbal abstracts are regularly formed thus with *pagka*, e. g.,

pagka-dî-pagbibigáy 'not giving' *from* dî 'not' + pagbibigáy 'giving.'

pagka-walâ-ng-baít 'condition of not having any sense.'

ka-dî-banál-an 'absence of virtue.'

ka-dî-dunúŋ-an 'ignorance.'

sangka-dî-binyág-an 'all heathendom' *from* dî binyág 'not baptized.'

Pagka may be prefixed to a whole sentence to indicate a cause, e. g.,

ang pagká akó'y kristiáno, siyá-ng dî ko iginagawâ nang

gayón 'my being a Christian is why I do not act thus; because I am a Christian, I do not act thus.'

sa pagká siyá'y mayáman dí ako iginagálang niyá 'because he is rich, he does not respect me.'

Sa pagká has practically become a causal conjunction (cf. §§ 137, 328).

Other particles which make derivatives from a complex of words are, e. g., *an* and *taga*, e. g.,

kábig-at-ayó-an¹ 'acceptor of persons, partial.'

taga-ibá-ng-báyan 'inhabitant of another town.'

IX. USE OF THE CASES.

§ 364. The definite, personal and inclusive articles, and certain pronouns have special forms to indicate case (cf. §§ 23, 25, 26, 28). The cases of nouns and other pronouns are indicated by the forms of the articles or the demonstrative pronominal adjectives before them (cf. §§ 24, 46—48). When a noun or pronoun is accompanied by adjectival modifiers the case of the phrase is indicated in the same way. A demonstrative adjective after the word it modifies has always the nominative form (cf. § 165).

§ 365. The nominative case may be a proper nominative, an appositive, or, in indefinite nouns, it may represent one of the other cases.

A nominative proper is used—

- a) as the subject of a sentence (cf. § 216, 217, 224, 229, 242).
- b) as the predicate of a sentence with non-verbal predicate (cf. § 217, 218).
- c) after certain prepositions (cf. § 210).
- d) after *ga* (cf. § 123).
- e) after an adjective to indicate 'with respect to what' (cf. § 192).
- f) as certain adverbs of time (cf. § 118).
- g) absolutely (cf. § 273, 295).

¹ Perhaps to be analyzed as *kabigá't aydan*, i. e., *kabigán at aydan*, in which case it does not belong here.

In a), b), c), g), the articles are used according to rule; in e) the definite article is always employed.

An appositive nominative is used—

a) after a noun or pronoun (cf. §§ 175, 186).

b) after a verb in apposition to the subject, or corresponding to what is in English a second object (cf. § 265).

The definite article is not employed except occasionally in a).

An indefinite dependent nominative is used—

a) after a noun (cf. § 174).

b) after certain pronouns (cf. § 185).

c) after *may*, *mayroón*, *marámi*, and *walà* (cf. § 229—233).

d) after certain prepositions (cf. § 210).

e) after verbs as the equivalent of a genitive (cf. §§ 244, 246).

The nominative of the demonstratives may be used after the quasi-verb *na* instead of the oblique (cf. § 224).

§ 366. The genitive case has in general the meaning ‘of, with, by.’ It is employed as follows, viz.:

a) as a modifying adjunct to a noun or pronoun; the genitives of the personal pronouns and of the interrogative *sino* in this construction are best considered as pronominal adjectives (cf. §§ 176, 184; 172, 166).

b) in combinations of coordinated nouns and pronouns (cf. §§ 182, 191).

c) after adjectives of equality (cf. § 199).

d) in the personal pronouns and the interrogative *sino* as a possessive pronoun (cf. §§ 25, 28); for use as predicate of simple copulative sentences cf. § 217, 222.

e) after the particle *a* ‘said’ (cf. § 234).

f) in the case of demonstratives after *may*, *walà* to denote ‘some of this, etc.’ (cf. § 229).

g) as the direct object of active verbs and the indirect object indicating ‘with, on account of’ of intransitive verbs of state (cf. § 243).

h) as the agent, or indirect object, or logical direct object of passive forms (cf. § 245, 247, 248).

i) after certain adverbs (cf. § 203).

j) after certain prepositions (cf. § 210).

k) after the interjection *abá* (cf. § 294).

l) adverbially (cf. §§ 117, 118, 133).

§ 367. The oblique case has in general the meaning of 'with regard to,' 'relating to,' 'in connection with,' but it must be translated in various ways 'to,' 'for,' 'from,' 'in,' etc., according to the context. It is employed as follows, viz.:

- a) as a modifier of a noun or pronoun (cf. § 177, 183).
- b) after adjectives in the positive, comparative and relative superlative degrees (cf. §§ 193, 198).
- c) in comparisons of equality (sometimes) to indicate 'with respect to what' (cf. § 199).
- d) as the predicate of simple copulative sentences (cf. § 219).
- e) after *na*, *may* and *wálâ* (cf. §§ 224, 228, 229, 230).
- f) in the case of names of persons and personal pronouns, as the direct object of an active verb (cf. § 243).
- g) as the indirect object of an active verb or passive form (cf. §§ 243, 245, 247, 248).
- h) after certain adverbs (cf. § 203).
- i) after certain prepositions (cf. § 210).
- j) after certain interjections (cf. § 294).
- k) in exclamations (cf. § 295).
- l) as adverbs and prepositions (cf. §§ 118, 122, 133, 134).

§ 368. In general the indefinite dependent nominative with its governing word form a sort of compound; the genitive indicates possession or agency, the oblique, the ideas of 'in, for, from,' and partitive 'of,' but there is more or less confusion and interchangeability among these three forms, and the regular rules are sometimes violated.—e. g.,

ang pintó-ng simbáhan 'the church door.'

ang pintô nang simbáhan 'the door of the church.'

ang pintô sa simbáhan 'the door in the church.'

táwo-ng Kastilâ } 'a Spaniard.'

táwo sa Kastilâ }

ang ikatló-ng áraw nang buwán 'the third day of the month.'

ang sa áking amá }

ang nang áking amá } 'that of my father.'

magkanó ang doséna niyáng mangá mansána 'how much
are these apples a dozen?'

síno ang táwo-ng lálo-ng mabantóg nang Estados Unidos
'who is the most famous man of the United States?'

ang kasalánan ay nakamatáy { nang } kaluluwá 'sin kills
sa } the soul.'

panúlat gintô
panúlat nang gintô } 'gold-pen.'

X. THE PLURAL AND THE USE OF MANGÁ.

§ 369. The plural of a noun is indicated in general by *mangá* placed before it, unless the noun is modified by a cardinal numeral or *marámi* 'many,' which themselves denote plurality, e. g.,

mangá táwo 'men.'

ang mangá táwo 'the men.'

dalawá-ng táwo 'two men.'

ang tatló-ng táwo 'the three men.'

marámi-ng táwo 'many men.'

If *mangá* is used in connection with a cardinal or *ilán* 'how many? some,' it imparts an indefinite meaning (cf. §§ 32, 34).

Mangá may also be omitted with *lahát* and *sarisári* used adjectively, e. g.,

lahát na táwo
lahát na mangá táwo } 'all men.'

sarisári-ng bigás 'various kinds of rice.'

sarisári-ng mangá bulaklák 'various kinds of flowers.'

After the particles *may* and *walâ* the indefinite nominative may be used without *mangá* with the force of a collective or indefinite plural, e. g.,

mayroón bagá-ng bulaklák sa kaniyá-ng halamánan 'are
there flowers in his garden?'

walâ silá-ng asáwa 'they are not married (have not wives).'

Mangá is usually not employed to form the plural of a pronoun, though it may stand with pronouns used adjectively; *ibá*, however, may be pluralized by *mangá* placed before it. The personal pronouns have special forms for the plural (cf.

§ 25). The plural of the interrogatives and of indefinites denoting 'a little,' is indicated by reduplication (cf. §§ 28, 32). The plural of demonstrative pronouns and such indefinites as are capable of denoting both singular and plural, is usually expressed by the singular.—e. g.,

itó'y mangá anák ko 'these are my children.'

ang (mangá) ibá'y maririkít 'the others are pretty.'

The plural of a noun modified by a descriptive or pronominal adjective may be indicated by the plural form of the adjective or pronoun, by *mangá* (used only once), or by both together, e. g.,

ang mabubúti-ng táwo	}	'the good men.'
ang mangá mabúti-ng táwo		
ang mangá táwo-ng mabubúti		
sinosíno-ng táwo	}	'which men?'
síno-ng mangá táwo		

The plural of attributive adjectives is expressed as in § 53.

The plural of predicate adjectives made with prefix *ma* is usually the reduplicated form, e. g.,

ang mangá dáhon ay malalakí 'the leaves are large.'

maririkít bagá ang mangá bulaklák 'are the flowers pretty?'

The plural of certain other derivative nouns and adjectives is also indicated by reduplication (cf. §§ 57; 149, e, g; 150, b; 156).

The plural of participles may be indicated by *mangá* as in the case of the noun, e. g.,

ang mangá isusúlat 'the things that are to be written.'

It may also be expressed as in the case of the verb by using the particle *magsi* (cf. § 387), or the subsidiary particle *ngá* (cf. § 103), or both, e. g.,

ang nagsisialís 'those who are departing.'

ang nanġagkakaútang 'the debtors.'

ító-ng nanġagsisipagsalitá 'these who speak.'

XI. APPPOSITION.

§ 370. A noun or pronoun standing in apposition to another noun or pronoun is placed after it, and is regularly joined to it by the ligature. The following are the principal varieties of apposition.

a) A common noun may be modified by another common noun, including all nouns not names of persons, or by the name of a person (cf. § 175), e. g.,

táwo-ng bátà 'a man, a boy' = 'a young man.'
ang bátà-ng kaniyá-ng alípin 'the boy his slave.'
ang búnga-ng ságing 'the banana-fruit.'
ang báyang Maynilà 'the city of Manila.'
ang buwáng Márzo 'the month of March.'
an pinsán ko-ng si António 'my cousin Antonio.'

b) The name of a person may be modified by a common noun, an adjective used as a noun, or by an ordinal numeral, e. g.,

si Francisco-ng anak ni Pédro 'Francisco the son of Pedro.'
si Juáng katúbig ni Tomás 'Juan the *katubig* of Thomas.'
si Pédro-ng magbabaká 'Pedro the warrior.'
si Pédro-ng matandà 'Pedro the aged.'
si Juáng ikalawá 'Juan the second.'

For nouns of relationship with prefixed *mag* in this construction cf. § 182.

c) A personal pronoun may be modified by a noun, an indefinite pronoun or a cardinal numeral; certain indefinite pronouns, by another pronoun (cf. § 186).

d) The nouns in the construction in § 265 are also best considered appositives.

The genitive is sometimes employed instead of an apposition to a common noun, e. g.,

ang bayan nang Maynilà 'the city of Manila.'
ang buwán nang Márzo 'the month of March.'

In some cases there is little difference between an appositive and an adjective after a noun. So in a common noun without article modified by an ordinal numeral; indefinite pronouns meaning 'something, anything,' or the name of a person, followed by a descriptive adjective (cf. §§ 357, 189, 173).

XII. ADVERBS.

IN GENERAL.

§ 371. Adverbs in general usually modify a predicate, verbal or non-verbal (cf. §§ 235—240; 257—264), but many, especially

those of degree, may modify single words (cf. §§ 177, 187, 195, 198, 200, 202, 206, 211, 212).

An adverbial idea which modifies a verb may be expressed as follows, viz.:

- a) by the various adverbs, an oblique case, or a prepositional phrase (cf. § 257—267).
- b) by a dependent verb in adverbial construction (cf. § 268).
- c) by a verb governing a dependent verb, e. g.,
 akó'y tumakbó-ng umalis 'I hastened to go, I went quickly.'
 kinúsa-ng ginawâ ni Pédro itó 'Pedro did this voluntarily.'
- d) sometimes by the verbal particles themselves, e. g.,
 pakaisipin mo = isipin mo-ng mabúti 'consider it well.'
 nagpatiluhód siyá = biglá-ng lumuhód siyá 'he knelt down suddenly.'
 nagsasainchík siyá = tíla siyá-ng Inchík 'he seems to be, is apparently, a Chinaman.'

Adverbs of manner are closely related to descriptive adjectives; adverbs of place, to prepositions indicating place; adverbs of degree, to indefinite pronouns; and consecutive adverbs, to coordinate conjunctions.

As a usual thing any *ma* adjective in any degree, or adjective of equality modified by an adverb with prefix *ga*, that denotes a quality, may be employed as an adverb of manner (cf. §§ 107, 108, 132). On the other hand any adverb that denotes manner may be used as an adjective; and many other adverbs may also be employed as adjectives (cf. § 178).

USES OF SPECIAL ADVERBS.

§ 372. For postpositive adverbs cf. §§ 205—209. The adverbs with prefixed *ga* are employed both as adverbs and pronouns; for their principal uses cf. §§ 31, 111, 123, 167, 200, 203, 275, 277, 298, 326. Adverbs of place have in general the constructions of oblique cases (cf. § 367). Adverbs denoting

manner are generally connected with the verb they modify by the ligature, or stand after it in the genitive; an adverb ending in a consonant immediately before the verb does not usually take the ligature (cf. §§ 258, 259, 261, 262).

§ 373. 1. Adverbs of time that are not postpositive have usually one of the constructions in §§ 260, 261; those which also indicate manner may have the construction in § 372.

Nouns of time modified by adverbs of time used as adjectives may be used absolutely as adverbs of time; some may be preceded by *sa*.—e. g.,

alilà ka bagá noóng úna niná María 'were you ever a servant in Maria's house?'

napasasimbáhan (cf. § 409, 3) kayó-ng lahat kangína-ng umága 'did you all go to church this morning?'

sa saká-ng áraw 'on the day after.'

The oblique cases in § 117 which are ordinarily used as adverbs with reference to the future, may be used of past time in connection with a verb in the preterite, e. g.,

sa isá-ng taón nagkompisál din akó 'I surely made my confession last year.'

Múna is used to indicate the performance of one action before another, either expressed or understood, in the sense of 'first, beforehand,' it is therefore often employed in a principal clause modified by a subordinate clause introduced by *bágo* 'before;' in connection with *huwág* it indicates a mild supplication.—e. g.,

hintáy ka múna 'wait a moment (first, before doing something else).'

sapagká't siyá'y linuluráan múna niyá 'because he spit on him first.'

binulakáan siyá múna niyá at ngay'ó'y dinaráya 'he first frightened her by rushing at her, and now he is deceiving her.'

bágo ka sumúlat ay isípin mo múna ang iyó-ng sasabihin 'before you write, think first what you are going to say.'

huwág múna 'never mind, please don't trouble yourself.'

Na indicates in general that an action spoken of is 'now, already' finished (cf. especially §§ 396, b; 398, c). In connection with a negative *na* has sometimes a meaning similar to that of *pa*, e. g.,

walâ na bagá? óo, mayroón pa 'is there no one else? yes, there is.'

'Now' without any idea of completed action is expressed by *n̄gay'ón*.

Pa is an adverb both of time and degree; as an adverb of time it means 'still, yet,' as an adverb of degree 'more, still more, in addition, else.'

§ 373. 2. Adverbs of degree modifying a verb have one of the regular constructions of adverbs; with adjectives and adverbs they are treated as in § 195; those which modify nouns, pronouns and prepositional phrases are postpositive (cf. §§ 178, 187, 211). For adverbs indicating a comparative or a superlative idea cf. §§ 371 end; 54—56.

Tumbás before nouns, indefinite pronouns and numeral adverbs has a distributive force similar to that of *tig* before cardinals. When used in connection with *tig* it emphasizes the distributive idea.—e. g.,

tumbás karákot 'a handful apiece.'

tumbás muntî 'a little for each.'

tumbás tig'isá 'one each for each.'

tumbás minsán 'once for each.'

§ 374. Affirmative adverbs usually emphasize a predicate, but may also sometimes modify single words (cf. § 206); all except *tantô* and the absolute affirmatives are postpositive.

N̄ga in a way takes the place in an affirmative sentence of the indefinite interrogative adverb in an interrogative sentence, and is used especially in answers to questions, e. g.,

magandá bagá ang babáyi 'is the woman beautiful?'

magandá n̄ga 'she is indeed.'

Cf. also § 241.

N̄gáni is practically a synonym of *n̄ga*, but is more emphatic, e. g.,

bátà ka n̄gáni-ng mabaít 'you are certainly, without any doubt, a sensible boy.'

Din has in affirmative sentences the idea of 'same, just;' after a negative it means 'just as little;' it is also employed to express the emphatic 'myself, etc. (cf. §§ 31; 355, 5; 291).

Mandin means 'without doubt,' e. g.,

táwo mandín 'he is a man without doubt.'

kinatitísóran nang lungmalákad ang mangá bató at kinatitísóran mandín nang marámi-ng kaluluwá ang mangá kapañganíban 'one who walks stumbles on the stones, and danger is surely the stumbling block of many souls.'

Palá indicates surprise on the part of the speaker that the thing spoken of is so, and signifies often that he believes or hopes that the contrary is true; *palá* stands after that which causes the surprise. Sentences containing *palá* are exclamatory.

—e. g.,

ikáw palá 'what! it was you.'

naparíto palá siyá 'he has really come!'

ganitó palá ang gantí mo sa ákin 'and so it is thus you requite me!'

ang iyó-ng maéstro palá pinagkakanolô mo nang isá-ng halík 'what! you betray your master with a kiss!'

halík palá ang ipinagkakanolô mo sa iyó-ng maéstro 'for a mere kiss, you will betray your master!'

The adverb and the conjunction *man* are of course the same word, and it is often difficult to distinguish between them, e. g.,

akó'y bigyán nang kakapatóngan man lámang 'give me enough for just one crown.'

pinangúsápan mo siyá nang katampalasánang wíkà sa lóob mo man lámang 'have you assailed him with insolent words, even (if) only in your heart?'

maralás walâ kami-ng naaaláman anománg bágo-ng kasalánang totóo, mumuntî man 'frequently we do not know of any new real sin, even a very slight one (however slight it may be).'

pag may salapí-ng titík, púsà ma'y tatalík 'when there is ready money, even the cat will dance.'

at dî man lámang maramdáman ang anomán sa hípò 'and he cannot even feel anything by touching.'

For *man* as the final element of indefinite pronouns and adverbs cf. §§ 29, 31, 127.

Tantô expresses the idea of 'indeed, certainly' in a more independent way than the postpositive affirmatives; it is frequently modified by *mandín*.—e. g.,

tantô mandín 'it is certainly true.'

tantô mandín^g nakítà ko 'I most assuredly saw it.'

§ 375. Negative adverbs usually modify a predicate, but the categorical negatives may also modify single words (cf. §§ 195, 363).

For the categorical negatives as modifiers of a predicate cf. § 223, 252, 290, 291.

For the use of *dili* in double questions cf. § 304.

For the use of *huwág* cf. § 253, 317, 325, 377 under *mahángá*.

Makâ, either alone or in connection with *bagá* and *sakálì* is used in asking questions in a delicate way, rather hinting at the question than asking outright, e. g.,

makâ ikinahiyâ mo at kayâ dí mo nasábi, 'you were not perchance ashamed, and therefore did not tell?'

makâ (bagá) sakálì ikinatákot mo 'you were perchance afraid?'

Kapalápa usually stands at the beginning of the sentence followed by *ay*; it may be preceded by the article.—e. g.,

kapalápa'y dí paroroón 'it is plain that he will come (it is surely not so that he will not come).'

kapalápa'y paroroón 'it is clear that he will not come.'

§ 376. Interrogative adverbs. For the indefinite interrogative adverbs cf. §§ 208, 235, 254; *bagá* and *kayâ* are used also as modal adverbs without any interrogative force (cf. § 377).

The special interrogatives, when used in simple copulative sentences, constitute the predicate of the sentence (cf. § 239), with the exception of those meaning 'why?', e. g.,

bákit ganiyán ang tanóng mo 'why is your question thus?'

In other sentences they have usually one of the constructions in §§ 261, 262.

Saán being also an adverb of place has in general the construction of an oblique case (cf. § 372).

Paanó means 'how, in what way?', *maanó*, 'how, in what condition?', *gaanó*, *gaalín*, 'how, in what quantity?'; the last

two may stand alone, being then almost equivalent to *magkanó* 'how much?', but they usually modify adjectives of equality.—e.g.,

paanó ang pagkamatáy niyá 'how did he die?'

maanó ka 'how are you, how do you do?'

maanó ang amá mo 'how is your father?'

gaanó-ng kalakí iyán 'how large is that?'

gaanó ang halagá nang utang ni Pédro 'how much is the amount of Pedro's debt?'

gaanó ang kalaónan mo sa Maynílà 'how long were you in Manila?'

gaanó-ng kaláyò ang Maynílà 'how far is Manila?'

§ 377. Modal adverbs denote ideas which are often expressed in English by auxiliary verbs, or by whole phrases or clauses. They take the various constructions of adverbs, and are frequently used in connection with the modal.

Madno, *nawâ*, *kahimanwári* are used in desiderative sentences (cf. § 298).

Sánà, *sa*, *disín* express the idea of the auxiliaries 'should, would,' and are used in sentences containing or implying a condition, e. g.,

anó-ng makagagambálà sánà sa kaniyá 'what would hinder him?'

Cf. also § 332.

Anáki, *diwâ*, *kasí*, *tila*, *yátà* express the idea of 'it seems that, apparently, I think': *kasí* is usually postpositive, but may also stand absolutely; it has also sometimes the meaning of a causal conjunction 'in as much as.'—e. g.,

anáki dî binyágan 'it seems that he is not a Christian.'

tila táwo 'it seems to be some one.'

tila akó náyag 'I think I consented.'

darating yátà 'I think he will come.'

diwáy dî ko nakikilála 'it seems that I don't know him.'

naparoón kasí 'it seems that he came.'

mayáman kasí si Pédro anó-ng dî ikapalálò niyá 'in as much as Pedro is rich, why shouldn't he be proud?'

kasí ngã 'it seems so indeed.'

Maráhil, *upán*, *sakálà* mean 'perhaps, perchance,' the last is used principally after *kun* and *makâ*.—e. g.,

maráhil ay makaginháwa sa kaniyá 'perhaps it (the medicine) may relieve him.'

maráhil daratíng siyá 'perhaps he will come.'

kun (bagá) sakáli paríto siyá 'if perchance he should come.'

makâ sakáli-ng may kasalánan ka-ng dakílâ 'I hope you haven't [committed] any mortal sin (may you not have).'

Daw, *konó* indicate an indirect quotation, and are placed after the predicate of what is said; they are to be translated 'he says, they say, people say, it is said, as he says,' when the pronominal subject of the sentence is the same as the logical subject of the verbal idea expressed by the adverb, it stands after the adverb, otherwise it precedes: *daw* is much more used than *konó*.—e. g.,

mayámang mayáman ka daw 'it is said, people say, you are very rich.'

namatáy ka daw 'it was said that you were dead.'

anó raw ang sábi niyá 'what (as he says) does he say?'

lumabás siyá daw 'he says let him go out.'

nanáyaw konó silá 'they say they are not willing.'

mag'aáral daw siyá 'he says he will study.'

bayáran mo daw kapagdáka ang utang 'pay the debt immediately he says.'

daratíng daw si Pédro 'they say that Pedro will come.'

namatáy konó si áli 'they say that aunty is dead.'

óo daw 'they say yes.'

Bagá and *kayâ* as modal adverbs are usually employed in connection with conjunctions and adverbs (cf. §§ 202, 212). *Bagá* may also stand as the equivalent of the consecutive adverbs *alalaóng*, *sa makatirwid* (cf. § 378).

Mahángâ 'it would be better that,' is usually followed by the particle *ay*; the negative of the following verb is *huwág*.—e. g.,

mahángâ'y nagsosólo 'it would be better to be alone.'

mahángâ'y huwág naginglaláki 'it would be better not to have been born a man.'

Talagá means 'by nature, according to, as a result of nature,

office, or position, as is fitting, proper, suitable;’ it regularly precedes the predicate it modifies, and is joined to it by the ligature.—e. g.,

talagá-ng maasím ang dáyap ‘the lemon is sour by nature.’

ang talagá-ng manggungúsap ay minulán niyá ang salitâ nang ganitó ‘the one whose duty it was to speak, began thus.’

anó-ng talagá-ng hilíg nang mangá Amerikáno ‘what is the natural disposition of the Americans?’

talagá hindi mo silá-ng pinarurusáhan ‘you do not punish them when they deserve it.’

Tábi is used, ordinarily by inferiors, in the sense of ‘with your permission, if you will allow me?’; it is used especially as a polite request to a superior to get out of the way and allow an inferior to pass; it regularly stands absolutely at the beginning of the sentence.—e. g.,

tábi, pô, akó’y daráan ‘with your permission sir, I will go on (will you please allow me to pass?).’

tábi, pô, akó’y íhì ‘pardon me sir if I urinate (a servant to his master).’

§ 378. Consecutive adverbs introduce a sentence which gives the result or explanation of some preceding statement, so that they are very similar to conjunctions. They are for the most part used absolutely or with following *ay*.

Kayâ is sometimes adverb, sometimes subordinate conjunction. When it introduces the consequence of a preceding statement it is adverbial, but when it means ‘the reason why’ of something in a following clause, it verges closely on the domain of the subordinate conjunction. The second clause in this latter use may be a clause introduced by a subordinate conjunction, an independent clause, or a verbal form made with the subsidiary particles *ka—an* (cf. § 329), e. g.,

dahíl bagá diyán kayâ siyá nagmamataás nang paganiyán ‘was it on account of this that he puts on such a lordly air?’

kayâ akó naparító’y nang kaawáan katá at huwág ka-ng mapakasamâ ‘the reason I came here was that I

might deal mercifully with you and that you might not be damned.'

kayâ hindi ko siyá-ng inaákay, sapagká't matigás ang kaniyá-ng úlo 'the reason I will not guide him is because he is stubborn.'

For the use of a clause introduced by *kayâ* in apposition to a noun meaning 'cause, reason' (cf. § 334).

'That is' may be expressed either by the consecutive adverbs *alalaóng*, *sa makatúwid*, alone or followed directly by *bagá* 'as it were;' by *bagá* alone after the explanatory word; or by the consecutive adverbs in conjunction with *bagá* as in the last case.—e. g.,

bukál na pina- ngangálang Siloe	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{alalaóng (bagá) sinúgò} \\ \text{sa makatúwid (bagá) sinúgò} \\ \text{sinúgò bagá} \\ \text{alalaóng sinúgò bagá} \\ \text{sa makatúwid sinúgò bagá} \end{array} \right\}$	'a spring called Siloe, i., e., sent.'
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Examples of other consecutive adverbs are—

ibigáy mo itó sa anák ko, tolóy akó'y ikúha mo nang áking lbro 'give my son this and at the same time (on the way) bring me my book.'

bákit nagsábi ka sa ákin na hindi ikáw ang kungmúha nang salapí bágo ikáw nga 'why did you tell me you didn't take any money when it was you all the time (yet you did)?'

pinálo akó niyá bágo'y walâ akó-ng sinábi 'he beat me yet I said nothing.'

kayâ nga'y di bibigyán katá nang salapí 'therefore I will not give you any money.'

hindi pa akó-ng nakaáhon at hindi akó-ng makapagsábi sa iyó kun akó'y makapagdadálaw sa kaniyá, di bákin akó'y mahiná pa at bágo-ng gáling sa sakít 'I have not been able to go yet, and I cannot tell you when I shall be able to visit her, for do you not see that I am still weak and just recovering from sickness (is it not because).'

diyáta'y ang wíka-ng latín kun kastíla kayâ ang tapát at dápat gamítin ninyó sa pagbinyág 'and so it is meet

and right that you should use Latin or Spanish when you baptize.'

nakítà ko siyá kahápon sa makatúwid hindî siyá sungmakáy 'I saw him yesterday consequently (that is to say) he did not embark.'

sungmisilang ang áraw at lungmalákad, kun sánan sa lungmalákad, sa kalonóran 'the sun rises and journeys (if we can use the word *lungmalákad* in this case, with reference to the sun) to the west.'

XIII. PREPOSITIONS.

§ 379. A preposition is generally used to make one word dependent on another in some case relation. The dependent word or object stands after the preposition, and may be a noun, pronoun or adverb (cf. § 210). The governing word may be a noun, pronoun, adjective, or verb (cf. §§ 177, 189, 194, 266). A prepositional phrase may also stand without governing word as the predicate of a sentence (cf. § 220).

Most of the simple English prepositions in connection with a verb are rendered simply by the oblique case, the verb itself indicating the special meaning of the case, e. g.,

ang táwò'y gáling (cf. § 411) sa Diós 'man comes from God.'

at sa Diós ang tóngo niyá 'and to God is his returning.'

nakisakáy akó sa kanilá 'I embarked with them.'

paroroón akó sa slog 'I shall go to the river.'

Often what is a prepositional phrase in English is expressed by the *i* or *an* passives and their subject, e. g.,

iyáng palakól ang ipótól mo nitó 'cut this with that hatchet.'

ikáw ang ipagtitiis ko nang lahat 'for you I have suffered all.'

ang áking halamána'y tatamnán ko nang sarisári-ng bulaklák 'I shall plant various kinds of flowers in my garden.'

panhíkan mo akó niyáng mangá ságing 'take those bananas up for me.'

On the expression of English prepositional phrases containing an interrogative or relative pronoun cf. §§ 352, 353.

The prepositional idea 'without' is expressed by *kulang* (cf. § 210) or by a relative clause with *walâ* 'not having' as its predicate, e. g.,

ang búhay na walâ-ng hanggán 'the life without end.'

pungmások siyá-ng walâ-ng batibátì 'he entered without a salute, without saluting.'

'Together with' is expressed by the prepositions *sampón*, *páti*, *tolóy* (cf. § 210) or by nouns with prefixed *ka* (cf. § 362, 7).

XIV. CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 380. Coordinate conjunctions simply connect, subordinate conjunctions connect and at the same time subordinate the sentence they introduce to another.

At may be used at the beginning of an interrogative sentence (cf. § 293).

At often introduces sentences which are equivalent to subordinate clauses (cf. § 303).

Kun, *kundi* are sometimes coordinate, sometimes subordinate conjunctions. Certain words are used both as subordinate conjunctions and as adverbs, e. g., *noon* 'then, when,' *kayâ* 'therefore, because.'

The English conjunction 'and' is rendered by *at*, except in the constructions of certain coordinated nouns and pronouns (cf. §§ 182, 191).

The correlative 'now—now' may be expressed by the conjunction *nayaóng—nayaóng* or by the construction in § 306.

A subordinate clause introduced by a temporal conjunction (cf. § 327) may also be expressed —

a) by a member of the compound sentences in §§ 305—308,

b) by the oblique case of a verbal abstract (cf. § 417).

A subordinate clause introduced by a conjunction of purpose (cf. § 325) may also be expressed —

a) by a dependent infinitive (cf. §§ 269, 270),

b) by the oblique case of a verbal abstract (cf. § 417),

- c) by a clause introduced by *at* (cf. § 303),
- d) by a clause introduced by *ang* (cf. § 317).

A subordinate clause introduced by a causal conjunction (cf. § 328) may also be expressed —

- a) by the subsidiary verbal forms made with *ka* — *an* (cf. § 329),
- b) by means of the derivative particle *pagka* before a sentence (cf. § 363),
- c) by a clause introduced by *at* (cf. § 303),
- d) by a clause introduced by *ang* (cf. § 317).

XV. VERBS AND QUASI-VERBS.

USE OF VERBS AND QUASI-VERBS IN GENERAL.

§ 381. 1. Verbs and quasi-verbs (except *ay*) are used principally as the predicate of a sentence (cf. §§ 216, 224, 229, 242). Quasi-verbs (except *ay*) and all verbal forms except those made with certain subsidiary particles may take the article, and be used as compound relative clauses in the various constructions of the noun (cf. §§ 225, 232, 251, 315—318). Verbs made with principal particles may depend on another verb, or upon a quasi-verb, adjective or noun (cf. §§ 179, 196, 268—272). For the use of the quasi-verb *ay* cf. § 424.

USE OF THE ACTIVE AND PASSIVE.

§ 381. 2. On the difference between active and passive in general cf. §§ 243, 245. On the use of the two voices, in sentences containing an interrogative pronoun or adjective, cf. § 255; in simple relative clauses, cf. § 312; in verbs with *maka* causative, cf. § 397; in dependent verbs, cf. §§ 268—271. The different uses of the three kinds of passive have been discussed in general in § 245. A more detailed discussion follows.

In general, whenever the subject indicates place or any person or thing regarded as place, including the person towards or from whom an action is directed, the *an* passive is employed, e. g.,

binabantayán ko ang báhay 'I am watching the house.'

bigyán mo akó nang ságing 'give me some bananas (let me be your giving-place of some bananas).'

si Juána'y binilhán niyá nang isá-ng bulaklák 'he bought a flower from Juana.'

Whenever the subject indicates cause, means, or instrument, or the person for whom or on account of whom anything is done, or is a relative pronoun referring to a noun indicating time when, the verb is put in the *i* passive, e. g.,

gálit ang ikinamatáy niyá 'he died of rage.'

iyáng palakól ay ipótol mo nitó 'cut this with that hatchet.'

ang áraw na idinatíng nang áking pinsán 'the day on which my cousin arrived.'

ibilí mo ang iyó-ng anak nang sapín 'buy some shoes for your son.'

ihalík mo akó sa kamáy ni amá't ni iná 'kiss for me the hands of my father and mother.'

Whenever the subject is the object of the verbal action, sometimes the *i* and sometime the *in* passive is used, according to the character of the verb. In general verbs denoting an action away from the agent take the *i* passive, those denoting an action towards the agent, the *in* passive.—e. g.,

ibigáy mo sa kaniyá itó-ng libro 'give him this book.'

kinúha ko iyáng libro 'I took that book.'

The following kinds of verbs take the *i* passive, viz., verbs of pulling, sowing, scattering, mixing, placing, giving, selling, speaking, teaching, comparing and imitating.

The following take the *in* passive, viz., verbs whose subject is the material of which anything is made, and verbs of taking, asking for, appropriating, eating, drinking, calling, saying, seeking, hunting, fishing, receiving, cutting, weighing, measuring, destroying, seeing, hearing, touching, tasting, smelling, thinking, remembering, liking and loving.

Whenever a verb which naturally requires the *in* passive has besides the direct object of the action an indirect object indicating some circumstance, either of time, instrument, cause, motive, or of place or any person or thing regarded as place, the verb may stand in the *i* or *an* passive respectively,

provided the accessory circumstances are more emphasized than the object of the action, e. g.,

hanápin mo ang iyó-ng libro nitó-ng ilaw	} 'look for your book with this light.'
ihánap mo itó-ng ilaw nang iyó-ng libro	

hanápin mo ang iyó-ng libro sa silid	} 'look for your book in the room.'
hanápan mo ang silid nang iyó-ng libro	

Verbs which naturally require the *i* passive when the subject is the object of the action, do not make the *in* passive, but the *an* passive of such verbs is used, whenever the subject is a place, or any person or thing conceived of as place, e. g.,

isábog mo itó sa iyó-ng búkid	} 'sow this in your field.'
sabógan mo nitó ang iyó-ng búkid	
itápon mo iyán sa dáan	} 'throw that in the road.'
tapónan mo ang dáan niyán	

The passives of all the verbal classes are used in conformity to the above rules. A number of the verbal classes from the nature of their signification exclude the *in* passive; *maka* causal has only the *i* passive; the *ma* class only the *an* passive. For the discussion of the passives of the various classes see the following section.

MEANING AND USE OF VERBS MADE WITH THE VARIOUS VERBAL PARTICLES.

VERBS WITH PRINCIPAL PARTICLES.

Um and Mag Classes.

§ 382. The particles *um* and *mag* are the most important verbal particles, and are used in general to form active verbs, often without difference in meaning. Whether a certain root takes *um* or *mag* to form an active verb is in many cases simply a matter of usage, and must be learned from the dictionary. Some may take both particles. In this case, the following are the principal differences in meaning.

a) Verbs expressing an action that affects only the subject, take *mag*, those expressing an action that affects some other person or thing, take *um*, e. g.,

maggamót 'dose oneself;' gumamót 'dose (another).'
mag'áral 'learn;' umáral 'teach.'

b) Verbs expressing movement that affects only the subject, take *um*, those expressing movement that affects another person or thing, take *mag*, e. g.,

lumápit 'approach;' maglápít 'bring near.'
tumaás 'elevate oneself;' magtaás 'elevate.'
lumabás 'go out;' maglabás 'take out.'

c) Verbs denoting action towards the agent of the action, take *um*, those denoting action away from the agent, *mag*, e. g.,
bumilí 'buy;' magbili 'sell.'

umábut 'get (for oneself);' mag'ábut 'get (for another).'

Compare also *kumuha* 'take' with *magbigáy* 'give.'

d) Verbs expressing reciprocal action take *mag*, or *mag* in conjunction with the subsidiary particle *an*. The persons or things concerned in the reciprocal action constitute one element of the sentence.—e. g.,

nag'aáway silá 'they are quarreling with one another.'
magtapát ka nang manḡá laráwan 'put the images one
in front of the other.'
pagtapatín mo ang manḡá siya 'put the chairs one in
front of the other.'

nagsosonóran silá 'they obey one another.'

If the action of these verbs is not mutual or reciprocal, but is performed by one of the parties concerned upon the other, i. e., when they stand in different cases, the roots are derived in the *um* class, e. g.,

si Pédro'y ungmaáway kay Juárez 'Pedro is quarreling with
Juan.'

e) Some roots, which when combined with *um* express a simple action, become frequentative when combined with *mag*, e. g.,

sumúlat 'write'—magsúlat 'write much.'
tumakbó 'run'—magtakbó 'run much.'

The frequentatives of *um* verbs like those in the preceding sections which have already a corresponding verb in the *mag* class that is not frequentative, are made according to § 83, or in the *man* class (cf. § 68), e. g.,

bumilí 'buy'	—	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{magbibilí} \\ \text{mamilí} \end{array} \right\}$	'buy much.'
umáral 'teach'	—	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{mag'arál} \\ \text{manġarál} \end{array} \right\}$	'teach much.'

§ 383. Other kinds of verbs that belong to the *um* class are the following.

a) Active verbs of destroying, burning, breaking, and the like, the subject of which is an animate being. When the subject is inanimate, the verb must be derived in the *maka* causal class.—e. g.,

akó'y bungmásag nang isá-ng pinggán 'I broke a plate.'
sino ang sungmíra nang manġá haláman 'who destroyed the plants?'

ang manġá langám ang siyá-ng lungmípol nang lahát
'the ants are those that destroyed everything.'

But,

ang lindól ay nakasíra sa convénto 'the earthquake destroyed the priest's house.'

b) Verbs from nouns of instrument, signifying to make use of them, e. g.,

gumuntíng 'cut with scissors' *from* guntíng 'scissors.'
sumibát 'pierce with lance' „ sibát 'lance.'

c) Verbs from roots denoting position, signifying the act of putting oneself into such a position, e. g.,

tumindíg 'get up, stand up' *from* tindíg.
lumohód 'kneel down' „ lohód.

d) Verbs from roots denoting things which are expelled from the body, signifying to expel them voluntarily, e. g.,

tumángis 'weep.'
lumurâ 'spit.'
umihì 'urinate.'

Some roots of this class, however, take *mag*, e. g.,
magpáwis 'sweat.'

e) Verbs indicating voluntary acts of the mind or senses, e. g.,

umibíg 'love.'
tumingín 'look.'
umamóy 'smell.'
tumikím 'taste.'

Some verbs of this class, however, are derived with *mag*, e. g.,
mag'ísip 'consider, think.'
mag'alaála 'remember.'

f) Verbs indicating 'to come forth, sprout forth, send forth,' e. g.,
sumflang 'rise (of sun, stars).'
tumúbò 'sprout (of plants).'
umusbóng 'send forth sprouts.'

Some verbs of this class are derived with *man*, e. g.,
mamulaklák (*bulaklák*) 'blossom with flowers, flower.'
mamúnga (*búnga*) 'bear fruit.'

g) Verbs from roots indicating stative abstract ideas, signifying 'to become,' e. g.,
gumalíng 'become good.'
pumutí 'become white.'
yumáman 'become rich.'

h) Verbs signifying to cause various passions or feelings in anyone; only the *in* passive is used, the person affected standing as subject.—e. g.,
hapísín mo siyá 'make him sad.'
takótin 'be frightened.'
gotómin 'be made hungry.'

i) Names of various animals, etc., which cause damage to different articles are used in the *in* passive to indicate that the article in question (which stands as subject) is damaged by them: the active is not used.—e. g.,
dinagâ (*dagâ* 'rat') *ang kiso* 'the rat ate the cheese.'
binálang (*bálang* 'locust') *ang pálay* 'the locust destroyed the rice.'

j) Verbs in the *in* passive from nouns of time, season, etc., meaning to 'to be overtaken by them' (cf. § 398, g), e. g.,
gagab'ihin ka sa gúbat 'night will overtake you in the forest.'

binagyó silá sa dagat 'the hurricane caught them at sea.'

k) In order to indicate absorption in an action or the preponderance of an action in such and such a place, a root is used at the same time in both the active and passive of the *um* class, the *in* or *an* passive being placed in immediate

sequence to the active. The verbal forms may stand unchanged in the modal, the tense being indicated by the context or by adverbs, or both forms may be fully conjugated.—e. g.,

umádyá adyahín ang mangá ángeles 'the angels bend all their efforts toward freeing (those entrusted to their care).'

umasáwa asaw'in dító 'here everything is marrying and being married.'

umáway awáyan doón 'there is nothing but quarreling there.'

1) For other verbs of the *um* class cf. §§ 405–409.

§ 384. Other kinds of verbs that belong to the *mag* class are the following.

a) Verbs meaning 'to make, sell, use, wear, eat, possess what the root indicates,' e. g.,

magbáhay 'build a house.'

magsabón 'make soap.'

magbigás 'sell rice.'

mag'itlóg 'sell eggs.'

magtápis 'use or wear the *tapis*.'

magságing 'eat bananas.'

mag'ári 'have property.'

Verbs of this class from nouns of relationship meaning 'to have such and such a relative' are often employed after *maálam*, *marúnung* 'know how,' indicating to know how to perform the duties incumbent on such a relationship, e. g.,

si Juárez ay maálam mag'amá 'Juan knows how to respect and obey his father.'

si Juárez ay marúnung mag'anák 'Juan knows how to bring up sons or daughters.'

b) Verbs made from names of nations and officials, meaning 'to act as, be like, be,' e. g.,

magkastilà 'be like a Spaniard.'

magpáre 'act as priest.'

c) Simple active verbs made from any foreign word which may be adopted into the language, e. g.,

magtedéum 'sing the *Tedeum*.'

magcumpisál (confesar) 'confess.'

magtabáko 'smoke.'

d) For other verbs of the *mag* class cf. §§ 405—409.

§ 385. *Mag* verbs combined with the subsidiary particle *ngã* indicate plurality of agents (cf. § 103).

Mag with subsidiary *an* (cf. § 104), besides making the reciprocal verbs in § 382, d, is used as follows, viz.:

a) To denote competition with the idea also of plurality of agents or actions, e. g.,

magtakbóhan 'run in contest (of many).'

magpanáan 'shoot many arrows in contest.'

b) With roots denoting motion, meaning 'to perform both the action of the root and its opposite,' e. g.,

maglabásan 'go in and out.'

magpanhikan 'go up and down.'

c) With roots denoting position, meaning 'to remain in such a position,' with an emphasis on the idea of remaining, e. g.,

magtahánan 'stand still like an idler.'

magloklókan 'remain seated as if you have nothing to do.'

d) With fully reduplicated roots, cf. § 403, d.

§ 386. The three passives of these two classes of verbs are used according to the rules in § 381. 2.

The passive of verbs of the *mag* class is often made like that of the *um* class without special passive particle. The special particle *pag* is used in the following cases.

a) It is employed whenever the sentence expresses plurality of agents or actions, reciprocal action, or the action of pretending to be something, e. g.,

banká-ng pinagsasakyán nang marámi 'boat in which many embark.'

itó-ng báhay na itó'y ang pinag'awáyan nilá 'this house is where they quarreled.'

ang ipinag'aáway nang mangá kapidbáhay mo'y ang pagsusugál 'the reason your neighbors quarrel is on account of gambling.'

pagtapátin mo ang mangá káhoy 'put the trees one in front of the other.'

ang ipinagsakitsakítan niyá'y ang hindî siyá palóin 'the reason he pretends to be sick is that he may not be beaten.'

b) It is employed in the *an* passive of those verbs where the *an* passive is used not only with a subject of place, but also with a subject of person or thing acted upon, whenever the subject is a real place; otherwise *pag* is not employed.—
e. g.,

alagáan mo itó-ng may-sakit díto sa silíd 'nurse this sick man here in this room.'

itó-ng silíd ang pag'alagáan mo díto sa may-sakit 'this room is where you must nurse this sick man.'

sidlán mo itó-ng tapáyan nang langís 'put the oil in this jar.'

c) It is used in the *i* passive when 'the person for whom' is the subject of a verb which takes the *i* passive without *pag* with a subject of person or thing acted upon, e. g.,

isáing mo ang kánin 'prepare the boiled rice.'

ipagsáing mo akó nang kánin 'prepare the boiled rice for me.'

Magsi Class.

§ 387. Verbs compounded with *magsi* indicate plurality of agents, and are not used with a singular subject. The three passives, though little used are employed according to rule.
—e. g.,

silá-ng lahát ay nagsialís 'they all went.'

magsipások kayó 'enter (*pl.*).'

pinagsisigawâ nang lahát 'it is made by all.'

The idea of these verbs may be emphasized by the subsidiary particle *ngã* (cf. § 103), e. g.,

ang marámi sa manġá nakaringġig nang ádal ay nanġag-sisampalatáya 'many of those who heard the teaching, believed.'

Magsa Class.

§ 388. The particle *magsa* is employed with names of nations in the sense of 'to imitate, conduct oneself after the

manner of the nation in question.' The *in* passive is used when the subject is that in which the resemblance consists; the *i* passive, when it is the cause of the action; the *an* passive, when it is the place.—e. g.,

nagsasasangláy ang mangá páre 'the priests act like Chinese.'

sinasasangláy nang mangá páre ang pangungúsap 'the priests are like Chinese in their way of speaking.'

ang ipinagsasasangláy nang mangá páre 'the reason the priests look like Chinese.'

ang Cántong ay pinagsasasanglayán nang mangá páre 'in Canton the priests act like Chinese.'

Magka Class.

§ 389. Verbs compounded with *magka* signify in general 'to have something (the root) which one did not have before,' e. g.,

magkasakit 'have sickness, be sick.'

magkaisip 'have sense.'

magkaútang 'have debt, owe.'

With certain roots it indicates 'to have something, get into something, do something involuntarily,' e. g.,

magkaáway 'have a quarrel, fall out.'

magkatípon 'have a meeting, meet.'

magkamali 'make a mistake.'

The passives are, the *i* when the subject is the cause, the *an* when it is the place of the action.

Verbs of this class may take the subsidiary particle *ngã* to denote plurality of agents (cf. § 103).

Some verbs of this class take the subsidiary particle *an* to indicate reciprocity (cf. § 104), e. g.,

magkataníman 'hate one another.'

dí nagkakakitáan 'they cannot see one another.'

Maki Class.

§ 390. The particle *maki* has the following meanings.

a) It denotes 'to do something in company with,' e. g.,
makisáma 'accompany.'

makitúwà 'rejoice with.'

makisakáy 'embark with.'

In this sense it takes the *i* passive when the subject is that which is added or put with, the *an* passive when the person or thing to or with which is the subject, e. g.,

ipinakikisúlat ko itó doón 'I put this with that, so that they may be written together.'

iyáng mangá súlat ay pakisulátan mo nitó 'let those papers have this written together with them.'

b) From roots denoting 'a part, division' it forms verbs meaning 'to ask what the root indicates,' e. g.,

makimána 'ask for inheritance.'

makipísang 'ask for a piece.'

With roots denoting 'something capable of division,' it means 'to ask a little of what the root indicates,' e. g.,

makisúkà 'ask for a little vinegar.'

makiápuy 'ask for a little fire, a light.'

In this sense the *i* passive is used when the cause or the person for whom anything is asked is the subject, the *an* passive when the subject is the person asked, e. g.,

ang may-sakit ay ipaki-	} 'ask Pedro for a little vinegar for the sick man.'
súkà mo kay Pédro	
si Pédro'y pakisukáan	
mo sa may-sakit	

c) With words indicating state, condition or office, it forms verbs meaning 'to appear, act like,' e. g.,

makipàrè 'act like a priest.'

makilaláki 'act like a man.'

makihári 'act like a king.'

makitagalog 'act like a Tagalog.'

Certain verbs under (a) may take the subsidiary particle *an*, the meaning being emphasized, e. g.,

makitaníman 'abhor.'

makisagótan 'ask many questions and receive answers, haggle.'

The use of the *an* is more frequent with the secondary forms with *makipag*, e. g., *makipagtaniman*.

Magin(g) Class.

§ 391. Verbs compounded with *magin(g)* signify 'to become, pass into, be, what the root indicates,' e. g.,

magin(g)bató 'become stone.'

magin(g)táwo 'become man.'

magin(g)kapitán 'become, be *kapitan*.'

Verbs of this class are not used in the imperative, the imperative of the root derived in some other class being employed instead, e. g.,

magkapitán ka 'be, become thou *kapitan*.'

The *i* passive is used when the subject is the cause, the *an* passive when it is the place of the action, e. g.,

ang pagsákop sa táwo ang siyá-ng ipinagin(g)táwo nang Anák nang Diós 'the Son of God became man for the redemption of mankind.'

ang pinagin(g)alákan nang túbig ay ang báyan nang Cána sa Galiléa 'the place where the water became wine was the town of Cana in Galilee.'

Magkan Class.

§ 392. Verbs of the *magkan* class signify involuntary action, especially with reference to anything that comes out of the body; the *i* passive is used of cause, the *an* passive, of place.—e. g.,

magkanlulúhà 'weep uncontrollably.'

magkan'íshì 'urinate involuntarily.'

Magkapa and Magpati Classes.

§ 393. The particle *magkapa* is used with roots indicating postures of the body or face, signifying 'to remain in them under the influence of terror or some strong emotion;' the *i* passive is used of cause, the *an* passive, of place.—e. g.,

magkapangísi 'remain with teeth showing.'

magkapamúlat 'remain with eyes wide open.'

The particle *magpati*, used with similar roots, signifies 'to

get suddenly, tho voluntarily, in such a posture;' the *i* passive is used of cause, the *an* passive, of place.—e. g.,
magpatiluhód 'throw oneself on the knees.'
magpatirapâ 'prostrate oneself.'

Man Class.

§ 394. The general meaning of verbs of the *man* class is frequentative, 'to do often, to perform as regular occupation;' verbs of the *um* class which are inchoative, or which have initial *b* or *p*, regularly make their frequentatives in this class.—e. g.,

manġúha (kúha) 'take much.'
mamúti (púti) 'cut many flowers.'
manúlat (súlat) 'write much, have writing as occupation,'
mamutí (p-um-utí) 'become very white.'
mamilí (b-um-ilí) 'buy much.'

From the general meaning are developed the ideas of 'to use or carry (instruments), to wear (clothes), to dwell in (houses, etc.), to hunt or search for (animals, plants, etc.), to hunt with (dogs, etc.),' e. g.,

manundáng (sundáng) 'use, carry a knife.'
mamárò (bárò) 'wear a shirt.'
mamáhay (báhay) 'live in a house.'
manġisdâ (isdâ) 'fish.'
manġáhoy (káhoy) 'search for wood.'
manġáso (áso) 'hunt with dogs.'
manlambát (lambát) 'fish with nets.'

The three passives are used according to rule (cf. § 381. 2).

Manhi Class.

§ 395. The general meaning of the particle *manhi* seems to be 'to seek, go seeking, seek to do what the root indicates.' It is used especially with words indicating filth or parasites of the body, in the sense of seeking out and cleaning the body therefrom. The *i* passive is used of cause, the *an* passive, of place.—e. g.,

manhimálay (pálay) 'glean rice.'

manhiganti (ganti) 'seek vengeance.'

manhinápang (tápang) 'exert oneself, make efforts.'

manhiningá (tingá) 'clean teeth of what gets between them.'

manhingókó (kokó) 'cut the nails (clean the hands of them).'

manhingóto (kóto) 'clean lice from head.'

Reciprocal action may be indicated by adding the subsidiary particle *an*, sometimes to the primary forms with *manhi*, but more frequently to the secondary forms with *mag-hi* (cf. § 75), e. g.,

manhingotóhan	}	'clean one another's heads.'
maghingotóhan		
maghimakásan (bakás)		

Ma Class.

§ 396. Verbs of the *ma* class signify in general state or involuntary action. Only the *an* passive is made. They may be divided into the following sub-classes.

a) Verbs indicating states of the mind or body, e. g.,

matákot 'fear.'

matúwà 'rejoice.'

magútum 'be hungry.'

maginaw 'be cold.'

The passive is used when the subject is that towards which the action of the mind is directed; the special particle is sometimes *ka*, sometimes *maka*.—e. g.,

ang kinatakatótan ko'y ang Diós 'God is whom I fear.'

ang nakakalumbayán ko 'that on account of which I am sad.'

makalimótan mo akó 'forget me.'

b) Intransitive verbs indicating partial or complete destruction, e. g.,

masirá 'be destroyed.'

mabaság 'break, smash.'

mabáli 'break, snap.'

mamatáy 'die.'

masónog 'burn.'

The present indicates that the destruction is taking place. To express the completion of the destruction in the present, the root, usually followed by *na*, is employed (cf. § 92).—e. g.,

namamatáy 'he is dying.'

nasosonóg 'it is burning.'

patáy na 'he is dead.'

sonóg na 'it is burnt up.'

indî pa toyô 'it is not yet dry.'

The passive is used, with special particle *ka*, when the place where the destruction takes place or from which it comes, is the subject; with special particle *ma* when the person affected stands as subject. *Ka* is also used of persons to express intention on the part of the agent.—e. g.,

itó-ng báhay ang kinamatáyan nang iná mo 'this house is where my mother died.'

namatáyan akó nang anak 'I have lost a child.'

akó'y kinasiráan ni kuán 'so and so was destroyed by me.'

When the time, day, hour, etc., in which the destruction took place is the subject, the passive of the *maka* causative class is employed, e. g.,

áraw na ikinamatáy in Pédro 'day on which Pedro died.'

c) Verbs of involuntary action; the passives with *ka* and *ma* are used as in (b), e. g.,

matáwa 'laugh involuntarily.'

malihís 'lose one's way.'

matísod 'stumble.'

mahólog 'fall.'

d) Verbs indicating to be in such and such a position, e. g.,
mahigâ 'be lying down.'

malohód 'be on the knees.'

maopô 'be seated.'

e) Verbs of becoming; the passive with *ka* is used of place.—e. g.,

maalípin 'become a slave, servant.'

maol'ól 'become mad.'

Ma is used in connection with the subsidiary particle *nãa* to denote plurality of subjects, e. g.,

marámi ang nangamamatáy 'many are dying.'

Ma is used in connection with the subsidiary particle *an* with names of nations in the signification of 'being very much like such and such a nation in conduct, customs and speech,' e. g.,

si kuán ay nakakastilaán 'so and so is very Spanish in his manners.'

Maka Class.

§ 397. Causative verbs are made from roots indicating qualities or conditions, e. g.,

makatúwà 'make happy.'

makatákot 'inspire fear.'

makabúti 'beautify.'

makahiyâ 'make ashamed.'

The only passive is the *i* passive. The subject of active and passive is always the same, regarded respectively as agent and cause, hence active and passive may be used at will, e. g.,

ang grácia'y { nakabubúti sa kaluluwá } 'Grace beauti-
 { ikinabubúti nang kaluluwá } fies the soul.'

§ 398. Potential verbs are made from roots denoting action. The three passives are used in general according to rule (cf. § 381.2). The following are the chief sub-classes.

a) Verbs signifying 'to be able to do what the root indicates,' e. g.,

makalákad 'be able to walk, go.'

makasúlat 'be able to write.'

makasábi 'be able to say.'

b) Verbs indicating involuntary actions of the mind or senses, e. g.,

makaísip 'think.'

makatalastás 'understand.'

makaíbig 'love.'

makakítà 'see.'

makadingíg 'hear.'

c) Verbs indicating the point of completion of an action; the future has the meaning of an imperfect (cf. § 413, c).—e. g.,

akó'y nakababása na nitó-ng libro } 'I am just finishing the
nababása ko na itó-ng libro } reading of this book.'

nakabása na } 'have just finished reading.'
nabása na }

makababása na } 'was just finishing reading.'
mababása na }

The preterite and modal are used to indicate the pluperfect and future perfect; in primary derivation, of the *um* class, in secondary derivation, of the other classes; the adverb *na* is regularly employed with these perfect forms.—e. g.,

nakasúlat na 'had written.'

nasúlat na 'had been written.'

makasúlat na 'shall have written.'

masúlat na 'shall have been written.'

nakapagáral na 'had studied.'

napagáral na 'had been studied.'

etc., etc.

The preterite is used in the second of two members with verbs from the same root, connected by *ay* or *at*, in the sense of 'when, while or as soon as a certain action was performed, it reached its accomplishment,' e. g.,

akó'y humingî nang mangá búnga'y(t) nakahingî akó
'I asked for fruit and obtained it.'

hinánap ko ang áking ináy nahánap ko 'I sought for my
mother and found her.'

hinábol ko siyáy hindî nahábol 'I ran after him but did
not overtake him.'

Cf. also § 307.

d) Verbs of being or doing by chance or without intention. The final *a* of the verbal particles active and passive has a separate accent (cf. § 12), e. g.,

akó'y naká-pások doón 'by chance I entered there.'

naká-tólog si Juán 'Juan happened to be asleep.'

ná-kúha ko 'I took it by chance.'

ná-panhikán ko iyáng báhay 'by chance I went up into that house.'

The imperative of verbs of this class has a negative force, e. g., maká-alís si Pédro 'may it not happen that Pedro should go.'

má-kúha mo iyán 'may it not happen that you should take that.'

The modal is employed after a future either twice, first after *at*, then after *kun* 'if,' or once after *kun*, in the sense of 'perchance the action of the first verb will be successful': in the second case the two verbs are from the same root.—e. g.,

akó'y hahásik at maká-áni akó kun maká-áni 'I shall sow and perchance I shall gather if there is a gathering.'

bubuhátin ko kun má-búhat 'I shall lift it if perchance I may.'

e) Verbs meaning 'to appear to be what the root indicates': the verbal particles are pronounced as in (d); these verbs may be varied for tense, or the modal may be used for all tenses; that with respect to which the subject of the active is similar to that expressed by the root stands in the genitive.—e. g.,

maká-tagalog ang páre nang pangungúsap 'the priest is like a Tagalog in his speech.'

naká-rorósas itó-ng bulaklák nang amóy 'this flower is like a rose in odor.'

f) Verbs used in making more or less indefinite statements about something which the speaker is ashamed or unwilling to vouch for by using the simple verb; such verbs are employed especially in confessing a fault or error.—e. g.,

ungmumít ka bagá nang anomán 'did you steal any thing?'

maráhil nakaumít akó 'perhaps I stole (something).'

nakità mo akó-ng pumatáy sa kaniyá 'did you see me kill him?'

nakakità akó } 'I may have seen.'
nakità ko }

g) The *an* passive derived from nouns of time, season, and

weather, is used with the meaning of 'to be overtaken, caught by such times, etc.' (cf. § 383, j), e. g.,

akó'y najuliohán sa Maynilà 'July found me in Manila.'

nagabíhan silá sa dáan 'night overtook them on the road.'

naglalákad kamí'y naulanán 'while we were walking we were caught in the rain.'

Pa Class.

§ 399. Verbs of the *pa* class are of three kinds.

a) Verbs signifying 'to allow or command something to be done to or for oneself,' e. g.,

patólong 'ask for help.'

pahalík 'allow to kiss.'

pahípò 'allow to touch.'

When the person to whom the entreaty or command is addressed is the subject, most verbs stand in the *in* passive, some, however, in the *an* passive, e. g.,

patolóngin mo si Pédro 'ask, command Pedro to help you.'

ang áting Pangínóng Díos ay ang paawaán mo 'our Lord God is the one whom you must ask for mercy.'

The *i* passive is used when the subject is the thing asked for or commanded, e. g.,

ipinaaalam ko sa páre ang anak ko 'I am asking the priest to give permission to my son.'

It is also used of cause, though here the secondary form with *ika* (cf. § 75) is more common, e. g.,

ang ipinasasangúnì (ikinapapasangúnì, cf. § 76) ko sa iyó ay itó-ng maliwag na úsap 'this difficult case is the cause of my consulting you.'

b) Verbs signifying 'to say what the root indicates,' e. g.,

paóo 'say yes.'

pahindí 'say no.'

padiáblo 'say the word diablo.'

The *i* passive is used of cause, the *an* of the person to whom it is said, e. g.,

anó-ng ipina-Jésus mo 'why do you say Jesus?'
pa-Jesusán ninyó ang may-sakit 'say Jesus to the sick man.'

c) Verbs of motion from adverbs of place and oblique cases, e. g.,

paríto 'come here.'
padoón 'go there.'
pasabúkid 'go into the country.'
pasa-Maynilà 'go to Manila.'

Sometimes the *sa* of the oblique case is omitted, e. g.,

pabúkid 'go into the country.'

The *i* passive is used when anything brought or carried to the place indicated by the root is the subject; the *an* passive when the subject is the terminus of the motion. When the subject is the cause of the motion the secondary form with *ika* (cf. § 75, i) is employed.—e. g.,

ipailáya mo itó 'bring this up'
paroónan mo si Pédro 'go to Pedro.'
ang Maynilà ang paroroónan ko 'I shall go to Manila.'
anó-ng ikinapaparoón mo sa Maynilà 'why are you going to Manila?'

Magpa Class.

§ 400. Verbs of the *magpa* class indicate in general 'to order, ask, cause, or permit some one or something to do what the root indicates.' They may be divided into the following sub-classes.

a) Verbs of ordering asking, and entreating; the difference in meaning depends on the relation of the agent to the person who is to perform the action, a master orders, a son requests, a prisoner entreats, etc.—e. g.,

magpagawâ 'order, ask to do.'
magpasúlat 'order, ask to write.'

The *in* passive is used of the person ordered or asked to do something; the *i* or *an* passive, of the thing (or person) ordered or asked to be done, according as the root in its simple meaning is used respectively in the *i* or *in* or in the *an* passive.—e. g.,

pasulátin mó si Pédro 'order Pedro to write.'

ipasulat mo itó sa bátà 'order the boy to write this'
(sulát-in).

ipatawag mo sa iyó-ng amá yaónḡ maginóo 'tell your
father to call that prominent citizen' (tawág-in).

painḡátan mo sa kaniyá itó 'tell him to guard this'
(inḡát-an).

b) Verbs of permitting something to be done or of waiting
until something happens, e. g.,

magpabulók 'let rot.'

magpatoyô 'let dry.'

magpasílang 'wait for the sun to rise.'

magpatilà 'wait until it clears off.'

The *in* passive is used of the thing permitted or awaited, e. g.,

patiláin mo ang ulán 'wait until it stops raining.'

patoyóin mo iyán 'let that dry.'

c) Verbs of causing intentionally what the root indicates,
either absolutely or to some object, e. g.,

magpakulóg 'cause thunder (of God).'

magpaulán 'make it rain (of God).'

magpaálon 'make the waves rise (of God).'

magpalakí 'cause to grow, bring up (of a parent).'

d) Verbs of placing oneself in or causing oneself to be in
the condition indicated by the root, e. g.,

magpabúti 'beautify, adorn oneself.'

magpapúri 'cause oneself to be praised.'

magpaaráw 'sun oneself, expose oneself to the sun.'

e) Verbs of putting something in the condition or position
indicated by the root, e. g.,

magpatindíg 'make upright, set up.'

magpaaráw 'put in the sun.'

magpalamíg 'expose to cold.'

The *i* passive is used of the thing put, the *an* passive, of
place, e. g.,

ipalamíg mo ang túbig 'put the water out to freeze.'

yari-ng batalán ang pinagpalamigán nang túbig 'this
terrace is where water is put to freeze.'

ipatindíg mo iyáng laráwan 'set up that image.'
patindigan mo itó-ng altár niyáng laráwan 'set up that image on this altar.'

f) Verbs of asking for or demanding what the root indicates, e. g.,

magpabuwís 'ask for tribute.'
magpalimós 'ask for alms.'
magpatúbò 'demand as interest.'
magpasanlá 'demand a pledge.'

The *in* passive is used of the person asked; the *i* passive, of what is demanded, the *an* passive, of the place where the demand is made, or of that from which the demand arises.—e. g.,

pinabuwís ko si Pédro nang piso 'I demanded tribute of a peso from Pedro.'

isá-ng piso ang ipinabuwís ko kay Pédro 'one peso was the tribute I demanded of Pedro.'

itó-ng báyan ay ang pinagpabuwísan ko 'this town is where I demanded tribute.'

ang limá-ng piso na inútang ko kay Juan ay pinatutubóan niyá sa ákin nang isá-ng salapî 'for the five pesos which Juan loaned me, he demanded four reals interest.'

g) Verbs of giving what the root indicates, e. g.,

magpabúhay 'give life.'
magpatingín 'give, restore sight (as in a miracle).'
magpakáin 'give to eat.'
magparamít 'give clothing.'
magpakumpisál 'hear confession.'
magparúsa 'impose penance, punish.'
magpasalámat 'give thanks, thank.'

The *i* passive is used of that which is given; the *in* or *an* passive, of the person to whom it is given, e. g.,

ipinaútang ko sa iyó ang salapî ko 'I lent you my money.'

pakánin ang 'nagugútom 'give food to the hungry man.'

parusáhan ang may kasalánan 'punish the sinner.'

The nouns derived from the passive stems of verbs of this class (cf. § 95) take a genitive of the one who orders or gives,

and an oblique of the one ordered or given to. The adverbs so derived take the constructions in §§ 258, 259.—e. g.,

itó'y paralá sa ákin ni iná 'this was sent (is a thing sent) to me by my mother.'

itó'y gaw'in mo-ng paupô 'do this seated.'

putlín mo itó nang pahábà 'cut this lengthwise.'

Magpaka Class.

§ 401. Verbs of the *magpaka* class may be divided into the following sub-classes.

a) Verbs of voluntarily making or allowing oneself or some other person or thing to become what the root indicates, e. g.,

magpakabúti 'beautify oneself, beautify.'

magpakayáman 'enrich oneself, enrich.'

magpakamatáy 'commit suicide, allow oneself to be killed.'

The *i* passive is used of cause; the *an* passive of place, *pagpaka* being used as special particle.

b) Verbs in which the meaning of the root is emphasized, e. g.,

magpakaísip 'think profoundly.'

magpakaíngat 'take great care.'

magpakatandâ 'note well.'

The three passives are used according to rule (cf. § 381. 2), the special particle being usually *paka*, tho sometimes *pagpaka*.

c) Verbs from nouns of time signifying 'to do, remain, or wait up to that time;' that which is done or persevered in may stand as dependent infinitive.—e. g.,

magpakaáraw ka-ng magáral 'study until day.'

The *in* passive is used of the person made to remain or detained; the *i* passive of cause; the *an* passive of place. The special particle is sometimes *paka*, sometimes *pagpaka*.—e. g.,

huwág mo akó-ng pakapag'umagáhin 'don't detain me until morning.'

ang ipinagpapakapúyat ko ay yari-ng gawâ 'I sit up all night with this work.'

itó-ng silid ay ang pinagpapakapuyátan ko 'I sat up all night in this room.'

SECONDARY VERBAL DERIVATION.

§ 402. In secondary verbal derivation the primary particles ordinarily preserve the meaning they had in primary derivation. The secondary particles (cf. § 75) have the following meanings, viz.:

Maka with all permissible classes 'to be able to do what the primary verb denotes;' *maka* has this meaning when combined with active stem of a *maka* causative verb.

Maká- with all permissible classes 'to do by chance what the primary verb denotes.'

Maka with all permissible classes except II *d, e* (*magka, maki*) expresses the pluperfect and future-perfect of the primary verb.

Magsi indicates plurality of agents.

Pa 'to order, ask for oneself, permit to be done to oneself what the primary verb denotes': *pa* is used with the *magpa* class only in verbs which denote giving, e. g., *pa-pa-káin* 'ask to give to eat;' *pa-pagpa-káin* 'ask many times to give to eat.'

Magpa 'to order, ask, entreat to do what the primary verb denotes.' In verbs of the *mag* class, while the special passive particle *pag* may be retained, it is usually omitted, the difference between the *mag* and *um* classes being shown by the construction of the verb, e. g., *magpalabás ka kay Pédro* 'order Pedro to go out;' *magpalabás ka kay Pédro nang damit* 'order Pedro to take out the clothes.' *Magpa* is used secondarily with its own class with all those verbs which do not denote 'to order etc.,' and even sometimes with those meaning 'to order, etc.,' e. g., *magpa-pa-súlat* 'order some one to order somebody else to write.'

Maki 'to join in doing what the primary verb denotes.' Double *maki* indicates 'to join in doing something without being invited,' e. g., *maki-paki-úsap* 'join in conversation without being asked.'

Ma imparts an involuntary meaning to the primary verb. When it is combined with stems beginning with *pag*, the *pag* is dropped, and *ma* is prefixed to the rest of the particle; in other words the involuntary verbs are apparently formed from the voluntary by changing *mag* to *ma* (cf. § 75, f): cf. *magpa-ulán* 'put in rain' with *ma-pa-ulán* 'leave in rain,' *magpati-hólog* 'fling' with *ma-pati-hólog* 'fall.' The preterite *an* passive of *ma* combined with various classes signifies 'to get or gain by an action,' that which is gotten or gained standing as subject, e. g., *itó-ng gintó'y napagkantahán ko* 'I earned this gold by singing.'

Um with verbs of motion of the *pa* class makes secondary verbs which do not differ in meaning from the primary verbs, e. g., *parito*, *p-um-a-rito* 'come here,' *pasabáhay*, *p-um-asabáhay* 'go to the house.'

Mag with verbs of the *man* class, and *pa* verbs of saying (cf. § 399, b) imparts a frequentative idea to the primary verb, e. g., *mag-panúlat* (*súlat*) 'be occupied with writing,' *mag-pa-óo* 'say *yes* many times.' With *pa* verbs of motion (cf. § 399, c) it denotes voluntary action, e. g., *mag-pa-saámin* 'come to us (vol.);' *mag-pa-ibabâ* 'go down (vol.).'

Ka, the passive particle of the *maka* causative class, simply emphasizes the causal meaning of the *i* passive.

Secondary verbs made with *um* and *mag* from verbs of the *manhi* class, and those made with *mag* and *magka* from the active stem of the *um* class, hardly admit of classification.

VERBS FROM FULLY REDUPLICATED ROOTS.

§ 403. In general verbs made in the various classes on the basis of fully reduplicated roots may have either an emphatic or frequentative, or a diminutive meaning, according as they are pronounced with more or less emphasis. The most important varieties of this kind of verbs are the following.

a) Verbs of the *um* class are usually diminutive, the corresponding emphatic verb being made with *mag*, e. g.,

si Juan ay bumabasabása 'Juan reads a little.'

si Juan ay magbabása 'Juan reads a great deal.'

dinaralaralá ko itó-ng sangól 'carry this baby in your arms a little.'

b) The future active of the *um* class of certain roots is used in the sense of a present to express certain kinds of motion, usually motion from side to side, e. g.,

susuraysúray 'stagger.'

babalibaligtád 'toss about (intr).'

uukod'úkod 'walk bent over.'

c) Verbs of the *mag* class are usually emphatic or frequentative. When the *mag* verb from the simple root is already frequentative, the idea is still further heightened by this formation.—e. g.,

mag'ísip'ísip 'think long.'

magsunodsunód 'follow one after another (of many).'

{ magsumpâ 'curse much.'

{ magsumpasumpâ 'curse very much.'

d) Verbs made with *mag-an* are in some cases emphatic or frequentative, e. g.,

magyakapyakápan 'embrace one another closely.'

mag'abut'abútan 'pass many things from hand to hand.'

But they are also frequently diminutive, meaning to 'pretend to be or do what the root indicates,' e. g.,

magbanalbanálan 'pretend to be righteous.'

magsakitsakítan 'pretend to be sick.'

magbahaybaháyan 'play at building houses (of children).'

magkagatkagátan 'bite playfully (of dogs).'

e) Verbs of *magka* and *magpaka* classes are regularly emphatic or frequentative; some of the *magka* verbs have reduplication of the first syllable of the root in addition to the full reduplication (cf. § 83).—e. g.,

nagkakapalaypálay 'has much rice.'

nagkakasisirasirà 'be destroyed completely.'

magpakaisip'ísip 'think about a thing very much.'

f) Verbs of the *man* class are made without assimilation. They are diminutive denoting 'to be like.' The modal may be used for any tense.—e. g.,

manbagyobagyó itó-ng hángin 'this wind is like a hurricane.'

mangalitgálit yaóng pangungúsap 'that way of speaking approaches anger.'

g) Verbs of the *ma* class are sometimes emphatic and sometimes diminutive. *Ma* may be employed with the same meaning as *man* in (f), e. g., *mabagyobagyó*, *magalitgálit*. In verbs of destruction the diminutive is distinguished from the emphatic by the adverb *na*, e. g.,

natotoyotoyô 'is very dry.'

natotoyotoyô na 'is somewhat dry.'

A present of this formation may be made from various nouns and roots in the sense of 'to be certainly, without doubt what the noun or root indicates,' e. g.,

natatawotáwo 'he is a man without doubt.'

nabubuhaybúhay 'he is surely alive.'

h) Verbs made with *ma—an* are diminutive, e. g.,
natatagatagalogán 'is something like a Tagalog.'

THE SUBSIDIARY VERBAL FORMS.

§ 404. The meaning of the verbal forms made with the various subsidiary particles has already been sufficiently discussed.

For those made with primary subsidiary particles cf. §§ 98—102, 247, 306—308, 329.

For those made with secondary subsidiary particles, cf. §§ 103—105; 385; 387; 389; 390; 395; 396; 403, d, h.

VERBS FROM OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH.

In General.

§ 405. Verbs may be made not only from roots, and secondarily from verbal stems, but also from many derivative nouns and adjectives, from pronouns, numerals, and adverbs, and even from case forms and whole phrases.

From Nouns and Adjectives.

§ 406. — 1) Nouns with prefixed *pala*, *taga*, and abstracts derived with *ka-an*, may be verbalized by *mag* in the sense of 'to be or do what the word to be verbalized indicates,' e. g.,

magpalainúm 'be a drunkard.'

magtagapagsáing 'cook.'

magkabanálan 'do virtuous acts.'

2) Nouns with prefixed *pala* may also be verbalized as irregular polysyllabic roots of the first class (cf. § 89), e. g., from *palasumpâ*,

malasumpâ
malalasumpâ (*fut.*) } 'be a curser.'

3) Adjectives and frequentatives are verbalized by *mag* in the sense of 'to pretend to have the quality indicated by the adjective or frequentative,' e. g.,

magmarúnung 'pretend to be learned.'

magmabúti 'pretend to be beautiful.'

mag-magkakantá 'act like a cantor.'

magmalimutin 'pretend to be forgetful.'

4) Adjectives like *makahiyahiyâ* (cf. § 151, g) take *mag* in the sense of causing the feeling indicated, e. g.,

magmakalumbaylumbáy 'move to sadness.'

magmakagalitgálit 'move to anger.'

5) *Sing* and *kasing* adjectives are verbalized by *mag* in the sense of 'to make what the adjective indicates.' In these verbs *si* is reduplicated in present and future.—e. g.,

magsinghába
magkasinghába } 'make equally long.'

6) Adjectives of equality with prefixed *ka* may take *mag* of reciprocity, e. g.,

kayó ni Juan ay magkatóto 'you and Juan be friends to one another.'

7) For *mag* verbs from nouns with prefixed *man* cf. § 408, 5.

8) Nouns with prefixed *taga*, *ka* (of equality) those derived with *ka-an* indicating material sufficient for, and *ma* adjectives, take the *in* passive in the sense of 'to make or consider what the word to be verbalized indicates;' root adjectives must take

ma before they can have this formation; *sing* and *kasing* adjectives may take the *in* passive of the *mag* class, the *i* and *an* of the *um* class, in the same meaning.—e. g.,

akó'y tagatanórin mo nang mangá anuáng mo 'make me herdsman of your carabaos.'

katolóngin mo si Pédro 'take Pedro for your helper.'

itó'y kinakabaróan ko 'I consider this enough for a shirt.'

minamarápat ko-ng sumúlat sa iyó 'I think it is suitable to write to you.'

minamabanál (*adj.* banál) ko yari doón sa isá 'I think this one is more righteous than the other.'

pagsing } -lapárin mo itó-ng dalawá-ng baníg 'make
pagkasing } these two mats the same width.'

isinghába mo itó doón } 'make this as long as that.'
singhabáan mo yaón nitó }

9) Nouns of instrument with prefixed *pan* make the *in* passive. When the material of which the instrument is to be made stands as subject it means 'to be made into the instrument;' when a pronoun representing the instrument is subject it indicates 'to use the instrument.'—e. g.,

pamalóin mo itó-ng bákal 'make this iron into a hammer.'

pamalóin mo múna itó 'use this hammer first.'

In the first case it is better to use *gawâ* 'make,' with the instrument in the construction in § 265, e. g.,

gaw'in mo-ng pamálò itó-ng bákal.

10) The nouns with prefixed *ka* are verbalized with *maki* in the sense of 'to ask some one to be what the root indicates,' e. g.,

si Pédro'y nakikatúbig sâ ákin 'Pedro asked me to be his companion in drinking water.'

11) *Magin(g)* is used to make verbs of various nouns of agency and adjectives in the sense of 'becoming,' e. g.,

magin(g)palaúsap 'become a pleader.'

magin(g)piyóhin 'become gouty.'

12) Nouns with prefixed *ka* may be combined with *maka* indicating 'by chance,' e. g.,

ná-kasáma ko itó 'by chance this one joined himself with me.'

From Pronouns.

§ 407. — 1) The prepositive genitives of the personal pronouns are verbalized in the active with *mag*, in the passive with *in*, in the sense of 'to consider as belonging to the person or persons indicated by the root;' with *magin(g)* they indicate 'becoming.'—e. g.,

mag'ákin 'consider as mine.'

mag'iyó 'consider as yours.'

aakínin ko 'I shall consider it mine.'

kinaniyá ko 'I considered it his.'

iniiyó ko itó-ng libro 'I consider this book yours.'

magin'iyó 'become yours.'

The nominative of pronouns of the second person takes *um* meaning 'to use the pronoun in address,' e. g.,

umikáw 'use *ikáw*, say thou to.'

2) From the pronoun *anó* are derived numerous verbal forms. It may take—*mag* and the *in* passive in the sense of making, doing; *maka* potential 'to be able;' *ma* of condition; *mapa* of involuntary motion.—e. g.,

nag'aanó ka 'what are you doing?'

inaanó bagá yaóng bátà 'what are you doing to that boy?'

aanhín mo akó 'what are you going to do to me?'

anhín mo itó 'what do you want with this?'

anhín katá 'what do I want with you?'

dí mo akó maanó 'you can't do me any harm (anything to me).'

maanó ka 'how are you?'

mapapaanó kayâ sa infierno ang mangá napapakasamá
'what will be the condition (to what will they come)
of the lost in hell?'

tingnán mo kun napaanó 'see what has happened to him.'

In certain idioms it takes *um*, and *magpa* combined with *um* and the *in* of the passive, e. g.,

mangyári-ng umanó 'what can be done (expecting a negative answer)?'

dí umanó 'they say, it is said.'
 aanó ka dito 'what do you want here?'
 magpaumanhín ka 'have patience.'

Other interrogative pronouns are also sometimes verbalized, e. g.,
 pinagsisino ninyó si gat Juárez 'what (who) do you think
 Mr. Juárez is?'

nagmamagkanó itó-ng singsing 'what is the value of this
 ring?'

For *ilán* cf. § 408.

- 3) Many of the indefinite pronouns may be verbalized, e. g.,
- | | | |
|-----------|---|-------------------|
| umibá | } | 'become changed.' |
| mag'ibá | | |
| maglahát | | 'do together.' |
| magkasiyá | | 'have enough.' |

For verbal forms from *kuán* cf. § 355, 8.

From Numerals.

§ 408. A number of important verbal forms are derived from the numerals, and the related interrogative *ilán*. In the compound numerals the passive suffixes *in* and *an* may be added after the first, or at the end of the whole numeral, the agent always following the passive suffix directly. When the two parts of a compound numeral connected by the ligature are separated by the passive suffix, the ligature stands immediately before the second part of the numeral.

1) The cardinal numerals and *ilán* make the following forms, viz.:

- a) with *um*, except *isá*, *pitó*, *waló*, meaning 'to reach such and such a number;' the modal is used for all tenses.—e. g.,

dumalawá 'there will be as many as two, the number will reach two.'

lumabí-ng isá 'there will be as many as eleven.'

dí dumalawá-ng pówò 'there will not be as many as twenty.'

- b) with *magin(g)*, the meaning being the same as above; these verbs may be varied to express tense.—e. g.,

magin'isá, maginpitó, maginwaló, 'let there be one, seven, eight.'

magigin'ápat 'there will be four.'

nagindalawá lámang 'there were only two.'

- c) with the *in* passive of the *um* class meaning 'to make, take, or consider so many,' e. g.,

iilanín ko 'how many have I to make *or* take?'

limahín mo kun anímin 'make *or* take five or six.'

labi-ng isahín mo }
labihín mo-ng isá } 'make, take eleven.'

akó'y inilán mo 'how many (people) do you think I am?'

akó yáta'y sinasanglibo mo nang marámi-ng útos
'it seems that you think I am a thousand to
judge from your many commands (I am made
a thousand by you with [your] many commands).'

- d) with *mag* meaning 'to divide into so many parts' or 'to be so many,' e. g.,

magtatló ka niyán 'make three of that, divide it
into three parts.'

mag'isá 'to be alone.'

nagdaralawá silá 'they are two, there are two of
them.'

- e) with the *in* passive of *mag* with same meaning as (d),
e. g.,

itó-ng kawáyan ay paglimahín mo 'divide this cane
into five parts.'

- f) with the *an* passive of *mag*, indicating that 'so many
come to or against the subject,' e. g.,

akó'y pinagdalahán, pinaglimahán 'two *or* five
came against me.'

2) The ordinals may take the *in* passive of the *um* class
meaning 'to be made first, second, etc.,' *ikailán* takes the same
formation.—e. g.,

akó'y ikailanín mo-ng sugóin 'the how-many-eth are you
going to make me when you send me?'

kitá'y ikalilimahín 'I will make you the fifth.'

They may be combined with *maki*, the *i* of the ordinal being

dropped, or better contracted with *i* of *maki*, signifying 'to ask for the part indicated by the ordinal,' e. g.,

makikalimá 'ask for a fifth.'

3) The fractions may be verbalized by *um* meaning 'to be such and such a part of,' e. g.,

ang lakás nang táwo ay dili sungmasaikasanglibo nang lakás nang ángel 'the strength of man is not the thousandth part of the strength of angels.'

4) The distributives formed by reduplication from the cardinals, take the *in* passive, and are used with a following dependent verb, which expresses the real action of the sentence; *ilan'ílan* takes the same formation.—e. g.,

ilan'ílanín ko-ng bilangín 'how many shall I count at a time?'

isaisahín mo-ng bilangín 'count one at a time.'

dinalaralawá-ng sinúgò ni Jésu Crísto ang mangá apóstoles

'Jesus Christ sent out the Apostles two by two.'

tatlotatlohín mo-ng kúnin 'take three at a time.'

labilabihín mo-ng isá-ng itápon } 'throw them eleven

labilabí-ng isahín mo-ng itápon } at a time.'

5) The distributives with prefixed *tig*, and the related distributive nouns with prefixed *man* (cf. § 153), are verbalized with *mag* to indicate 'to give, take, make, cut, etc., for each one so many of—,' and are followed by the genitive of what is given, taken etc.; *tig'ílan* takes the same formation. Both active and *an* passive are used.—e. g.,

magtig'isá kayó nang ságing 'give each one one banana.'

pagtitig'isahán mo silá nang tabáko 'give each one a cigar.'

magmanáan kayó nang piso 'give each one a hundred pesos.'

These *mag* verbs may be further combined with the *in* passive of the *magpa* class meaning 'to have or cause each one to take so much,' e. g.,

papagtig'isahín mo silá nang ságing 'let each one take a banana.'

pinapagmangában (kabán) ko silá 'I made each one take a *kaban* (of rice).'

6) The numeral adverbs and *makailán* may be verbalized by *mag*; in the active the meaning is 'to do so many times.'—e. g.,

nagmakailán ka na nang gayón 'how often did you do this?'

akó'y nagmakalimá 'I did it five times.'

These verbs are also used to indicate the period of intermittent fevers, e. g.,

nagmamakailáng-áraw ang lagnát 'what is the period of the fever?'

nagmamakalawá 'every two days.'

The *in* passive signifies 'to do in so many times,' e. g.,

pagminsánin mo-ng itápon iyán 'throw that away all at once.'

pagmakalawahín mo-ng kúnin 'take it in two times.'

The *an* passive corresponds in meaning to the active, or is used to indicate a comparison in which one term of the comparison exceeds the other a certain number of times in some respect. The superior term is made the agent, the inferior, the subject; that with respect to which the comparison is made stands as indirect object in the genitive.—e. g.,

pinagmakalawahán ko-ng hinampás siyá 'I beat him twice.'

si Pédro'y pinagmakalawahán ni Juan nang pagkáin at nang paglákad 'Juan ate and walked twice as much as Pedro.'

From Adverbs and Phrases.

§ 409. In some cases it is the root, which is often identical with the adverb, that is verbalized, rather than the adverb itself. The most important of these verbalized adverbs and phrases are the following.

1) The oblique case of certain nouns and pronouns, and the interrogative adverb *saán* may be verbalized in the *um* class, signifying 'be continuously in, live in a place,' e. g.,

sumalángit 'be, reside in heaven' (sa lánġit 'in heaven').

sungmasaán si Juan 'where does Juan live?'

sungmasaáng-báhay si Juan 'in which house does Juan live?' (saáng báhay 'in which house?', cf. § 226).

si Luis ay sungmakaná-Pédro 'Luis lives with Pedro and his family' (kaná Pédro 'at the house of Pedro and his family').

2) Adverbs of place and oblique cases may be verbalized in the *mag* class in the sense of 'to put in a place,' e. g.,

magdíni ka niyáng libro 'put that book here.'

magsaáraw ka nang damít 'put the clothes in the sun' (sa áraw).

The corresponding passive is the *i* passive of the *um* class, e. g., *isadraw mo ang damít*.

3) Adverbs of place and the oblique case of nouns and pronouns may be verbalized in the *pa* class, in the sense of motion towards the place indicated by the adverb or oblique. Some of these verbs are secondarily compounded with *mag* and *ma* (cf. § 75).—e. g.,

parito 'come here.'

paroón 'go there.'

pasabáhay 'go to, into the house.'

magpasaámin 'come to us (voluntarily).'

mapasaámin 'come to us (invol).'

Some of these verbs may be further derived in the *um* class without difference of meaning, e. g.,

pumarito 'come here, come.'

4) The indefinite adverbs of place may be also combined with *magka* and *um* (cf. § 75) in the sense of 'to be in a place,' e. g.,

magkadumíto 'be there.'

5) *Doón* forms a number of other verbs, e. g.,

magkaroón 'have, possess.'

mandoón 'be in a heap.'

6) The indefinite adverbs of manner may be verbalized in the *um* class and may take the *in* passive of this class, and the passive of *maka* causative, e. g.,

gumayari 'do, make like this.'

gumayaón 'do, make like that.'

gaitóhin mo 'make it like this.'

anó-ng ikinagaitó mo kay Pédro 'why are you doing this to Pedro (what is the cause of your doing this)?'

7) From *huwág* are made the following passive forms, e. g.,

huwagán mo iyán }
huwagi (iyán) } 'don't do that.'

pahuwagin mo iyáng bátà niyán }
pahuwagán mo iyán diyán sa bátà } 'tell that boy not to do that.'

8) Many other adverbs may be verbalized in various ways, e. g., itó'y minamayamayâ ko 'I did this a moment after.'

pagbabagóhin ko ang áking báhay 'I shall renovate my house.'

tinakis }
pinaksâ } niyá 'he did it on purpose.'

tambíngin mo-ng kúnin 'take it immediately.'

magtumbás kayó nang muntí 'each of you take a little.'

9) *Magin(g)* may be used to verbalize many words and phrases in the sense of 'to be, become,' e. g.,

magin(g)magkanó 'be how much?'

magin(g)paanó 'be how?'

magin(g)-manǵá-iláng-áraw 'be or become some days, be some days after.'

In some cases *magin(g)* has become practically a conjunction (cf. § 136).

10) *Magka* may be used to verbalize words and phrases in the sense of 'to have,' e. g.,

magka-isá-ng-lóob 'have (be of) one mind.'

magka-ganitó 'be like this (have such a fate as this).'

It also forms verbs from the *in* and *an* passives, *um* class, of the verbs denoting action of the senses, meaning to be deceived by the sense in question. The passive may be varied for tense, and the reduplication may be omitted in the particle in present and future.—e. g.,

nagka-kinitáan akó 'my eyes deceived me.'

magka-riringgán ka 'your ears will deceive you.'

nagka-kinikità } raw si Ána nang } 'Anna says she sees
nagkaka-kinikità } kaniyá-ng asáwa } visions of her (dead)
husband.'

nagkaka-kinikitáan akó 'my eyes deceive me.'

CLASSES OF VERBS WITH RESPECT TO MEANING.

§ 410. Verbs made with tense particles may be approximately divided with regard to their meaning, into the following categories, viz.:

- 1) Stative verbs, denoting a state or condition; *ma*, *magka*, *magkapa* classes (cf. §§ 396, 389, 393).
- 2) Verbs of habitual position or condition; *um* class (cf. § 409, 1).
- 3) Verbs indicating a change of state; *magin(g)*, *ma*, *um* classes (cf. §§ 391; 396, e; 383, g).
- 4) Verbs of involuntary action; *ma*, *maka*, *magkan*, and in secondary derivation *ma-pa*, *ma-paki*, *ma-paka*, *magpati* classes (cf. §§ 396, c; 398, d; 392, 402).
- 5) Verbs of simple voluntary action; *um*, *mag* classes (cf. §§ 382—384).
- 6) Verbs of motion towards; *pa* class (cf. § 399, c).
- 7) Plural verbs; *magsi* class, and the combinations of certain classes with the subsidiary particle *ng'a* (cf. §§ 387, 103).
- 8) Frequentative verbs; *man*, *mag* (sometimes), and reduplicated forms (cf. §§ 394; 382, e; 83).
- 9) Augmentative verbs; *magpaka* class and reduplicated forms (cf. §§ 401, 78, 403).
- 10) Diminutive verbs; reduplicated forms (cf. §§ 78, 403).
- 11) Reflexive verbs; *um*, *mag*, *magpati*, *magpa*, *magpaka* classes (cf. §§ 382, a, b; 393; 400, d; 401, a; also 355, 5).
- 12) Reciprocal verbs; *mag* class and combinations of subsidiary particle *an* with various classes (cf. § 382, d; 104).
- 13) Causative verbs; *maka*, *magpa*, *magpaka* classes (cf. §§ 397; 400, c; 401, a).
- 14) Mandative and permissive verbs; *pa*, *magpa*, *magpaka* classes (cf. §§ 399, a; 400, a, b, g; 401, a).
- 15) Demandative verbs; *maki*, *magpa* classes (cf. §§ 390, b; 400, f).
- 16) Potential verbs; *maka* class (cf. § 398).
- 17) Verbs indicating completion; *maka* class (cf. § 398, c).

- 18) Associative verbs; *maki* class (cf. § 390).
- 19) Verbs of similarity, of being or acting like; *magsa* (but little used), *maki*, *maka*, *mag*, *ma*, *man* classes (cf. §§ 388; 390, c; 398, e; 384, b; 396 end; 403, f, g, h).
- 20) Verbs of saying so and so; *pa* class (cf. § 399, b).
- 21) Verbs of putting or placing; *mag*, *magpa* classes (cf. §§ 409, 2; 400, d, e).
- 22) Verbs of seeking out and cleansing from; *manhi* class (cf. § 395).

USE OF ROOT FORMS.

§ 411. The use of the simple root as a verb is comparatively rare except in familiar conversation. The auxiliaries *ayaw*, *dapat*, *ibig* and *sukat*, however, are regularly employed in the root form.

Gáling 'come from' is also commonly employed in the root form, e. g.,

saán ka-ng *gáling* 'where do you come from?'

ang táwo'y *gáling* sa Diós 'man comes from God.'

Verbs of the *ma* class are used in the root form as in §§ 92; 396, b.

In the imperative, the root form is often used instead of forms with verbal particle (cf. §§ 79, 80, 250).

The root is also employed, especially in familiar conversation, as the equivalent of a passive verb, e. g.,

at sa Diós din ang *tóngo* niyá 'and to God also he returns (is his return).'

magkanó ang halagá niyáng báro-ng *dala* mo 'how much is that shirt you have brought?'

yaóng salawál na *bigáy* ko sa iyó 'those trousers I gave you.'

mabúti, Juán, ang *sábi* ko sa kaniyá 'good, Juan, said I to him.'

ang *wikà* nang isá-ng bátà sa kaniyá-ng panginóon ay may táwo dito sa labás 'said a servant to his master, there is some one without.'

papások bagá siyá ang *tanóng* nang bátà 'shall he enter?—asked the servant.'

pumások na ang *sagót* nang panginoón 'let him enter answered the master.'

kun walâ ka-ng *dalâ*-ng salapî ay huwág ka-ng pumások dîto 'if you haven't brought any money, don't come in here.'

USE OF THE TENSE AND MODE FORMS.

§ 412. The modal is employed as follows.

a) As a verbal noun constituting the subject or predicate of a sentence, e. g.,

mahálay ang magmatápang 'boasting of bravery is disgusting.'

ang magálam ay paráti-ng pakanâ 'to know is always useful.'

ang ugáli nitó-ng háyop ay humánap nang pagkabúhay sa araw'araw lámang 'the custom of this creature is to seek its livelihood from day to day only.'

b) As an infinitive after nouns, adjectives and verbs (cf. §§ 179, 196, 269, 270), and as an adverb after a verb (cf. § 268).

c) As an imperative (cf. § 249).

d) For the present: when the action is contemporaneous with the speech, e. g.,

akó'y malís na 'I go.'

kánin ko 'I eat.'

In the principal clause of a complex sentence, when the action of the principal and subordinate clauses are contemporaneous, e. g.,

kun nagagálit ang maéstro parusáhan niyó ang lahát na mangá bátà 'when the teacher is angry, he punishes all the boys.'

After a negative, especially in the case of verbs of the *maka* potential class, e. g.,

hindî akó makapagáral 'I cannot study.'

hindî ko masábi 'I cannot say.'

e) For the preterite in certain dependent clauses, e. g.,

silá'y nangagúlat nang makità nilá ang áhas 'they were frightened when they saw the snake.'

f) As a sort of subjunctive to express modal ideas, especially in dependent clauses, e. g.,

sino-ng di tumáwa 'who would not laugh?'

Cf. also §§ 310—334, 377.

§ 413. The future is employed as follows.

a) Principally as a future.

b) As an emphatic imperative, with the same construction, both in affirmative and negative sentences as the modal used imperatively, e. g.,

tatandáan mo itó 'note this well.'

huwág mo akó-ng kalilimútan 'don't forget me.'

c) In sentences containing a temporal clause in the sense of 'was just about to,' e. g.,

nang akó'y aalis na ay dungmating ang iná ko 'when I was about to go, my mother arrived.'

d) To indicate a customary action which is conceived of as going on into the future, e. g.,

susúka si kuán 'so and so has spells of vomiting.'

bákít ikaw ay di kakáin 'why don't you eat (why are you abstaining from food)?'

hahampásin katá bágo walá ka-ng bait 'I beat you (continually) and yet you have no sense.'

e) As the equivalent of the modal in its subjunctive use, e. g.,

sino-ng di tatáwa 'who would not laugh?'

§ 414. The preterite is used only of past time, except in maledictions, where it refers to the future (cf. § 297).

§ 415. The present is employed as follows.

a) For the most part as a present.

b) In connection with adverbs indicating past time, as an imperfect to express continuous action in the past, e. g.,

akó'y bungmabása kahápon 'I was reading yesterday.'

c) Instead of the preterite, when the verb has the meaning of the English present perfect, e. g.,

kinúha mo bagá ang bárò ko 'have you taken my shirt?'

hindi ko kinukúha (or kinúha) 'I have not taken it.'

§ 416. Participles when used absolutely take the same construction as a noun, and may be used with the article and the plural particle *manḡá*. When used adjectively they are connected by the ligature with the word modified. Participles

are practically identical with verbs of relative clauses, it being immaterial whether the article or ligature before the verbal form be considered as simple article or ligature, or as relative pronouns. The verbal form approaches more nearly to our idea of a participle when it stands without verbal modifiers, or with only the agent in the passive. The participle with the negative has the same construction as the affirmative form.
—e. g.,

- ang nagbibili ay hindi dapat magdáyà sa bumibili 'the seller should not deceive the buyer.'
- walá akó-ng damít na isimbá 'I have no clothes to go to mass in (mass-hearing clothes).'
- ang táwo-ng iniibig nang Diós 'the man beloved by God.'
- ang mangá isusulat 'the things to be written.'
- ang minamahál kó-ng kaibigan 'my esteemed friend.'
- ang mangá hindi marúnung bumása 'those who do not know how to read.'

USE OF THE VERBAL NOUN OF ACTION.

§ 417. The verbal nouns, besides being employed as ordinary nouns, have the following special uses.

a) As the subject or predicate of a sentence with a meaning similar to that of the modal (cf. § 412, a), e. g.,

- ang pagpások ko dito ay kahápon 'I entered here yesterday (my entering here was yesterday).'
- matúwid na nga ang pagkalumbáy mo 'your lamenting is then quite proper.'
- ang ipinagbababág nilá'y ang pagparoóng walá-ng tígil sa sugál nang asáwa-ng laláki 'the reason they are quarreling is that the husband won't stop gambling (the going of the husband without ceasing to the game).'
- ang pagpapások ko dito nang sambalélo'y nakità ni gat Luís 'Don Luis saw me bring a hat in here (my bringing a hat here was seen by Don Luis).'
- huwág mo-ng ipahintólot sa iyó-ng mangá anák ang paglabás kun gabí 'don't permit your children to go out at night.'

b) In the oblique case with *sa* as the equivalent of a temporal or purpose clause, e. g.,

sa pagpások nang isá-ng hárl sa isá-ng báyang malaki ...
'on the entrance of a certain king into a certain large city ...'

sa pagtakbó niyá ay natísod sa isá-ng bató 'while he was running he stumbled against a stone.'

anó-ng mabúti-ng gaw'in sa pagkakamít nang kaharian nang lánġit 'what should be done (is good to do) to attain the kingdom of Heaven?'

c) In various constructions as the equivalent of a finite verb, e. g.,

paanó-ng pangyayári niyán 'how is that possible?'

pára nang pagpatáwad námin sa nangagkakaútang sa ámin 'as we forgive those who are indebted to us'
(cf. § 326).

pagalís ni Juan ay pagdating ko 'as soon as Juan left, I arrived.'

pagalís dító nang áking kapatid ay siyá-ng pagdating mo 'as soon as my brother left here, you arrived.'

nang pagdating nang súlat mo ay sinusúlat ko itó 'after your letter arrived, I wrote this.'

EXPRESSION OF VARIOUS TENSE AND MODAL IDEAS.

§ 418. 'To be about to' is expressed by primary subsidiary forms with *ka—an* (cf. §§ 100, 247), and by the future (cf. § 413, c).

'To have just' is expressed by *maka* (cf. § 398, c) or by primary subsidiary forms with *ka* upon partially reduplicated roots (cf. §§ 98, 247).

The absolute participial forms 'having, having been' are expressed by the primary subsidiary forms with *kapag*, etc. (cf. §§ 99, 247, 308).

The pluperfect and future perfect are expressed by the preterite and modal respectively of *maka* potential prefixed to the passive stem (in I, the root); except in II **d, e** (*magka, maki*), IV (*ma, maka*), where the preterite and modal of the primary verb are used for these tenses. The adverb *na* is regularly employed with these perfect forms (cf. § 398, c).

These perfect tenses are usually employed in complex sentences; the future perfect may be used for the pluperfect under the same conditions as those under which the modal may be used for the preterite (cf. § 412, e).—e. g.,

naibigáy ko na ang ipinabigáy mo nang ikáw ay dung-
mating 'I had already given what you told me to
give when you arrived.'

kun ikáw'y makasúlat na ay susúlat akó 'when you shall
have written, I shall write.'

tinanggáp ko ang súlat mo nang makasúlat na akó 'I
received your letter after I had already written.'

Modal ideas, in so far as they are not expressed by the modal, are indicated by the modal adverbs (cf. §§ 128, 377), the modal auxiliaries (cf. § 270), or by the verbal particles themselves.

The idea of 'ability to do' is expressed either by *maka* potential or by the auxiliaries *mangyári*, *súkat* 'be able,' except in the case of a verb of the *ma* or *maka* causal classes, when only the latter should be used; *maka* refers more to physical, the auxiliaries more to moral ability, though they are often used interchangeably.—e. g.,

mangyári kayá-ng matúwà ang may kasalánang dakilà
'can anyone in mortal sin be happy?'

itó-ng damó'y súkat makaginháwa sa iyó 'this herb is
able to, will relieve you.'

The idea of 'ordering, asking to do' is usually expressed by *magpa*. It may also be rendered, however, by the auxiliaries *mag'ótos*, *magbílín* 'order,' followed by an infinitive of the action to be performed.—e. g.,

hindí akó nag'ótos (nagbílín) sa	} 'I did not order you	
iyó-ng gumawâ nitó		
hindí ko ipinag'ótos (ipinagbílín)		
sa iyó na gaw'ín mo itó		
		} to do this.'

Verbs of 'ordering to order' are best rendered by the auxiliaries, instead of with double *magpa*, e. g.,

mag'ótos (magbílín) ka kay Juárez na magpasúlat siyá kay
Pédro 'order Juan to order Pedro to write.'

The idea of 'asking for oneself' is regularly expressed by the verbal particle *pa*. The secondary verbs with *pa* upon

magpa (e. g., *papakáin* 'ask to give to eat'), however, are best paraphrased by the verb *humingî* 'ask, demand,' e. g.,

humingî ka kay Pédro nang kánin 'ask Pedro for food.'

The causatives of roots denoting qualities or conditions are formed with *maka* (cf. § 397). The causatives of roots denoting action are formed with *magpa* (cf. § 400, especially c).

GOVERNMENT OF VERBS.

§ 419. Verbs with active form indicating state or becoming, or an action which affects only the agent, or in which the person or thing affected is included in the verb, may be followed by a genitive of cause or of respect to what, and an oblique denoting place, or in the sense of a dative. Such verbs are those of the *magsa*, *magka* (except *magkaroón* 'have'), *magin(g)*, *magkan*, *magkapa*, *magpati*, *manhi*, *ma*, and some of those of the *um*, *mag*, *maki*, *man*, *maka* (potential), *pa*, *magpa*, and *magpaka* classes.—e. g.,

akó'y nangínginig nang takót 'I am trembling with fear.'
nagkakanhohóbo si Pédro nang pagtáwa 'Pedro bursts out (denudes himself) with laughter.'

magkastílà nang damít 'be like a Spaniard in costume.'
ang túwa'y nagkakanlalábis sa áking púsò 'my heart overflowed with joy (joy overflowed in my heart).'
at nang ikáw ay magpakagaling sa lángit 'that you may be saved in heaven.'

siyá'y nagpatihológ sa túbig 'he threw himself in the water.'
ang písos sa araw'araw ay hindî magkakasiyá sa ákin
'a peso a day will not be enough for me.'

§ 420. Verbs of active form in which the action affects more or less directly some person or thing other than the agent, take their objects according to the general rule in §§ 243, 244. Such verbs are found in the *um*, *mag*, *maki*, *man*, *maka* (causative and potential), *pa*, *magpa* and *magpaka* classes: add also *magkaroón* 'have.'

Note the following additional points.

1) A verb sometimes takes an oblique of the person and a genitive of the part affected, e. g.,

humalik sa ákin nang kamáy 'he kissed my hand.'

2) Verbs of the *maki* class in its first two meanings, viz., 'to do something with,' and 'to ask a little,' are followed by the oblique of the person with whom it is done, or of the person asked, e. g.,

nakisakáy akó sa kanilá 'I embarked with them.'

makikibigás akó sa kapidbáhay 'I am going to ask a little rice from (my) neighbor.'

Verbs which do not include the idea of the thing asked for, take it in the genitive, e. g.,

makikúha ka nang álak doón sa convénto 'ask for a little wine at the priest's house.'

makiráan ka nang súka 'ask for a little vinegar in passing by.'

3) *Magkaroón* takes a genitive of the thing possessed, e. g.,
kun magkaroón sánà akó nang pilak ay hindi akó nagkakaganitó 'if I had any money, I should not be in this condition.'

4) Verbs of the *magpa* class with the meaning 'to order, ask, entreat to do,' are followed by the oblique of the person or thing ordered, etc., by the genitive of the thing ordered, etc., to be done, and by the oblique of the person, etc., to whom it is ordered to be done, e. g.,

ang maéstro'y nagpapasúlat sa iyó 'the teacher tells you to write.'

magpalabás ka kay Pédro nang damít 'order Pedro to take out the clothes.'

dí nagpagawâ akó sa iyó nitó 'I did not order you to do this.'

magpasúlat ka sa párè sa hokóm 'beg the priest to write to the judge.'

5) Verbs of the *pa* class meaning 'ask for oneself, allow to be done to oneself' take the oblique case of the person asked, and the genitive of the thing asked for or allowed, when it is not included in the verb, e. g.,

pakúha ka sa iyó-ng anák nang isá-ng lukbán 'ask your son to bring you an orange.'

paáwà ka sa Diós 'ask mercy of God.'

ang áting Panginoóng Jesucristo'y napapótong nang tiník
'our Lord Jesus Christ allowed himself to be crowned
with thorns.'

huwág ka-ng patálo sa diáblo 'don't let yourself be
overcome by the devil.'

§ 421. The passive governs the genitive and oblique cases in general according to § 245. The three kinds of passives take the cases as follows: the *in* and *an* passives may be followed by a genitive of instrument or means; the *i* and *an* passives, by a genitive of the object of the verbal action; the *in* and *i* passives, by an oblique of place; the *in* and *i* passives, and sometimes the *an* passive may be followed by an oblique meaning 'to, for, from.'

Note the following additional points.

1) The *i* passive of the *maki* class is followed by the oblique of the person or thing accompanied or asked; the *an* passive takes the genitive of the thing which is joined with another, or the oblique of the person or thing for whom something is asked (cf. § 390, a, b).—e. g.,

ipinakikisúlat ko itó doón 'I write this together with that.'	
ang may-sakít ay ipakisúka	} 'ask Pedro for a little vinegar for the sick man.'
mo kay Pédro	
si Pédro'y pakisukáan mo	
sa may-sakít	
iyáng mangá súlat ay pakisulátan mo nitó 'write this along with these papers.'	

2) The passive of certain verbs of the *ma* class may be followed by a genitive of respect, e. g.,

akó'y nalalakásan niyá nang pagkáin 'he surpasses me
in eating.'

naliksihán ko siyá nang pagtakbó 'I am swifter than he
in running.'

3) The passive of *maka* causative verbs takes, as grammatical agent, a genitive of the person or thing acted upon, e. g.,

ang kahinhinán ay siyá-ng ikinagagandá nang mangá
dalága 'modesty is what makes maidens beautiful.'

bákit ikinalulumbáy mo ang balítà 'why does the news
make you sad?'

4) The *i* passive of verbs of the *pa* class takes an oblique of the person asked, e. g.,

ang ipinasasangúni ko sa iyó ay itó-ng maliwág na úsap 'the cause of my consulting you is this difficult case.'

5) Verbs of the *magpa* class meaning 'to order, ask, entreat,' take in the *in* passive a genitive of the thing to be done, and an oblique of the indirect object of the action ordered; the *i* and *an* passives govern an oblique of the person ordered.—e. g.,

pasulátin mo siyá nitó-ng panalángin 'ask him to write this prayer.'

pasulátin mo ang pádè sa hokóm 'beg the priest to write to the judge.'

ipasúlat mo itó sa bátà 'order the boy to write this.'

Verbs of the *magpa* class meaning 'to ask for, demand,' take in the *in* and *an* passives a genitive of the amount demanded; in the *i* and *an* passives an oblique of the person asked.—e. g.,

pinabuwis ko si Pédro nang píso	} 'I demanded a peso
isá-ng píso ang ipinabuwis ko kay	
Pédro	

of tribute from Pédro.'

ang pinatutubóan niyá sa ákin nang isá-ng píso 'that upon which he demands of me a peso interest.'

§ 422. Primary verbs of the *magsi* and *maka* potential classes follow the construction both in active and passive of the simple *um* or *mag* verb derived from the same root. Secondary or tertiary verbs in general follow, both in active and passive, the construction required by the secondary or tertiary particle.

XVI. CONNECTIVE PARTICLES.

THE LIGATURE.

§ 423. The ligature is used in general to connect words which stand to one another in the relation of modifier and modified.

When one or more words are inserted between two words which are joined by the ligature, the ligature stands after the

last of the inserted words, instead of after the first of the original pair (cf. § 22). *Lámang* 'only' is an exception to this rule; when it is the last of the inserted words the ligature is not used, probably because the final *ng* of *lámang* is regarded as the ligature, e. g., *isá lámang lugár* 'only one place.'

For the use of the ligature with inserted parenthetical expressions cf. § 338.

The form *-ng* is regularly used after a vowel or *n*; *na*, after other consonants; but *na* may also sometimes be used after a vowel or *n*, especially when the ligature introduces a clause, e. g.,

ang inyó-ng pinsán na si Ásay 'your cousin Tomás.'

kun walâ akó sána-ng amá, iibígin ko disín ang asáwa ko na lálò sa lahát 'if I had no father, I should love my husband best.'

kun íbig mo na patawárin ka nang Diós 'if you wish to be pardoned by God.'

Cf. also §§ 311. 1—314, 319—322.

For the form *-n* cf. § 21.

Certain nominal modifiers are never joined by the ligature to a following modified word, viz.: the articles (not including the indefinite article), the plural particle *manḡá*, and the indefinite pronominal adjectives *bálang*, *báwa't* 'each, every' (cf. §§ 164, 167). A numeral does not take the ligature before a noun with prefix *ka* denoting an individual (cf. § 168).

The ligature is regularly omitted in certain constructions after a consonant (cf. §§ 174, 196, 229, 244, 258, 269, 270). When one of more words are inserted between words of this character and the following modified or modifying word, the ligature is regularly used after the last of the inserted words.

Postpositive words are never joined by the ligature to the word preceding (cf. § 340).

Adverbs are often employed without being joined to what they modify by the ligature (cf. §§ 195, 261). Conjunctions and prepositional phrases are usually, though not always, so employed (cf. §§ 138, 211).

The ligature may often be omitted, where, according to the regular rule, it would stand, viz.:

- a) after words ending in *n* (cf. § 21).
- b) when there is a pause between the two words connected, e. g.,
mag'ingāt kayó(-ng) mangá duwág 'take care, cowards.'
kayó(-ng) mangá kakasálin ngay'ón 'you, who are to be married today.'
- c) in familiar conversation, in almost any construction, e. g.,
isá-ng táwo(-ng) hubád 'a naked man.'
alín bagá(-ng) dalampásig 'which bank?'
anó kayâ ang áraw(na) na sa katapúsan nang búwan
'what is the day (which) is at the end of the month?'
walâ akó(-ng) alinmán 'I have neither one.'
huwág ka(-ng) mótol nang mangá káhouy 'do not cut any trees.'
ang mangá sili(-ng) itinaním nang iyó-ng alilà sa
halamánan 'the peppers (which were) planted by
your servant in the garden.'
pakaingátan mo(-ng) huwág ka-ng kagátin 'take
good care (that) you are not bitten.'
magbabantâ tayó(-ng) magkamít nang kayamánan
'we shall try to get rich (obtain riches).'
ang áking pamángkin ang siyá(-ng) nagsábi 'my
nephew was the one that said it.'

The principal uses of the ligature are, viz.:

- a) to connect a noun or pronoun and adjectival modifier (cf. §§ 164—173, 178, 180, 187—189).
- b) to connect a noun or pronoun and dependent nominative (cf. §§ 174, 185).
- c) to connect a noun, pronoun, or verb and an appositive (cf. §§ 175, 186, 265).
- d) to connect an adjective or adverb and an adverbial modifier (cf. § 195, 202, 132).
- e) in comparisons of equality to connect the pronoun of similarity with what precedes (cf. § 277).
- f) after an interrogative pronoun, adjective or adverb, instead of the definite article (cf. §§ 222, 225, 231, 239, 255).

- g) to connect adverbs with verbs (cf. §§ 257, 262).
- h) to connect prepositions and their objects (cf. § 210).
- i) to connect prepositional phrases with what precedes (cf. § 211).
- j) to connect conjunctions with the sentence they introduce (cf. §§ 138, 335, 336).
- k) in the constructions of *may* and its negative *walâ* (cf. §§ 229—233, 271).
- l) instead of the genitive of the definite article after verbs (cf. §§ 244, 246).
- m) to connect nouns, adjectives, and verbs with a following dependent verb (cf. §§ 179, 196, 269, 270).
- n) to introduce a subordinate clause in the sense of a relative pronoun or conjunction (cf. §§ 311. 1—314, 319—325).

THE PARTICLE *AY*.

§ 424. The particle *ay*, after a vowel *ay* or *'y*, is used as follows, viz.:

- a) to connect a subject with a following predicate (cf. § 216, and §§ 217—272 *passim*).
- b) to connect any element not the grammatical subject, which stands first in the sentence, with what follows (cf. §§ 260, 266, 267, 273).
- c) to connect two coordinate sentences (cf. §§ 305—308).
- d) after the subordinate clause of a complex sentence, when it precedes the whole or part of the principal (cf. § 310 and §§ 315—318, 325—334 *passim*), and sometimes also before it when it stands between the subject and predicate of the principal (cf. § 338).
- e) at the beginning of a simple copulative sentence whose subject is not expressed (cf. § 241).
- f) at the beginning of a sentence before an interrogative pronoun or adverb (cf. § 293).

The use of *ay* is not obligatory, except as a usual thing between subject and following predicate; even here it may be omitted in certain cases, viz.:

- a) when it has been used already in the same sentence (cf. § 343).
- b) in familiar conversation, especially if there is a pause between subject and predicate, e. g.,
ang mangá kamóte (ay) nakabubusóg 'sweet-potatoes, they are satisfying.'
ang isdá (ay) hindi pa inaasnán 'the fish, it is not yet salted.'
ang isá-ng taón (ay) may iláng búwan kayá 'one year has how many months?'

XVII. GENERAL RELATIONS OF THE GRAMMATICAL CATEGORIES.

IN GENERAL.

§ 425. The arranging of words and constructions under various categories is more or less arbitrary, and a matter of convenience. The different categories are not separated by any hard and fast lines, but pass gradually one into the other, so that at times it is difficult to say to which of two a word or construction belongs. In this section those categories which resemble each other will be grouped and compared.

INTERRELATIONS OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ 426. A root may stand as any part of speech, and often the same root may be employed as two or more parts of speech; practically any root may serve as a noun, and also be verbalized by the various verbal particles.

Many classes of derivative nouns have practically the same formation as certain verbal forms, though the accent is often different (cf. §§ 141—143, 145—153).

Any descriptive adjective, root or derivative, may also be used as a noun (cf. § 201), and almost any noun is capable of being used as an adjective (cf. § 361).

Any adjective or noun used as an adjective which denotes manner may also be used as an adverb, e. g.,

biglá 'suddenly.'

magalíng 'well.'

karaníwan 'usually.'

katapustapúsan 'finally.'

Cf. also § 130, c.

Many adverbs on the other hand may be used as adjectives (cf. § 178).

Adverbs of place are simply oblique cases of nouns and pronouns (cf. § 122).

Adverbs of degree and indefinite pronouns of quantity are very similar in character, and often identical in form (cf. §§ 30, 31, 123, 124).

Auxiliary root verbs (cf. § 270), and verbs with adverbial construction (cf. 268), are very similar to adverbs and some adverbs are identical with verbal forms (cf. § 130, d).

Adverbs and conjunctions are of a similar character and often identical in form (cf. §§ 107—129, 136—138).

Prepositions are largely roots and nouns followed by a noun or pronoun in the same construction as if they depended on a noun.

Practically any derivative word, whatever its character, is capable of being verbalized by some verbal particle (cf. §§ 405—409).

INTERRELATIONS OF CONSTRUCTIONS.

§ 427. The same word, used as two parts of speech has often the same construction and combinations in both cases, e. g., *kayâ* 'therefore, because,' *man* 'even, although' (cf. §§ 202, 212, 374).

The verbal nouns of action are often used as the equivalent of a verb (cf. § 417, c), and on the other hand almost any verbal form may take the article and certain other nominal modifiers like a noun (cf. §§ 251, 416).

The cases depending on a verb are similar to those depending on a noun, pronoun, or preposition (cf. §§ 174, 176, 177; 183—185; 210; 243—247).

Oblique cases, prepositional phrases, and certain adverbs are very similar in their constructions (cf. §§ 177, 189, 193, 194, 219, 220, 239, 260, 266, 267).

A relative or noun clause introduced by the ligature has a construction similar to that of the adjective or noun it represents (cf. §§ 311. 1—314, 319—325).

A dependent infinitive is practically the same thing as a dependent clause introduced by the ligature (cf. §§ 269, 319, 325).

Almost any word, phrase or clause may take the article before it and become in a sense a noun (cf. §§ 189, 201, 204, 211, 225, 232, 251, 315—318).

Sentences are often subordinated to others by means of some form of the article prefixed to them. These forms of the article are in many cases practically conjunctions (cf. §§ 316—318).

A subordinate clause preceding its principal has the same construction as certain adverbial elements (cf. §§ 260, 310 and §§ 315—334 *passim*).

Two sentences connected by *ay* practically constitute a simple copulative sentence (cf. §§ 305—308).

The line between coordinate and subordinate clauses cannot always be sharply drawn; sentences which are compound in form are often complex in meaning (cf. §§ 303, 305—309).

TYPES OF CONSTRUCTION.

§ 428. The combinations of words follow in general certain types of construction, without regard to the parts of speech to which they belong. These types are the following, viz.:

- a) modifier + modified, joined by the ligature (cf. §§ 164—173, 177, 178, 187—189, 195, 200, 202, 240, 258).
- b) modified + modifier, joined by the ligature; the modifier may be an adjective or appositive (cf. §§ 165, 167, 169, 173, 175, 180, 186, 189, 265, 273), or a dependent element (cf. §§ 174, 179, 185, 196, 197, 210, 229, 244, 246, 268—271).
- c) modified + genitive (cf. §§ 176, 184, 199, 203, 210, 234, 243, 245, 259).
- d) modified + oblique, or equivalent prepositional phrase or adverb (cf. §§ 177, 183, 224, 229, 230, 243, 245, 261, 266).
- e) modified + postpositive word (cf. §§ 190, 205—209, 340).
- f) subject + predicate, joined by *ay* (cf. §§ 216, 217, 224, 229, 242, 305—308).

- g) predicate + subject (cf. as in *f*).
- h) some word, phrase, or clause + *ay* + one of the types in (f) or (g) (cf. §§ 260, 266, 267, 273, 310).
- i) adverb or subordinate conjunction + sentence of one of types in (f) (g) or (h), or with various adjuncts of the verb between adverb or conjunction and predicate; the last of these adjuncts may be followed by the ligature. Cf. §§ 236, 237, 261, 262, 335, 336.
- j) conjunctive type, two words, phrases or sentences joined by a coordinate conjunction, or two sentences joined by subordinate conjunctions or relative pronouns (cf. §§ 299–334).
- k) parenthetical type (cf. § 338).
- l) repeated type, two identical words or forms joined by the ligature or *na-ng* (cf. §§ 56, 58, 132, 134, 209).

In types (a) and (b) the ligature is very frequently omitted when the first of the two words or the last word inserted between them ends in a consonant. In some instances type (a) without ligature is equivalent to (i) [cf. § 261]; type (b) without ligature, when the modifier is a dependent element, is similar to (c) or (d). Types (h) and (i) in many cases differ only in the use of the particle *ay* after the first element.

APPENDICES.

A. List of roots whose derivatives with the suffixes IN, AN are syncopated or otherwise irregular.

This list is based on that in NOCEDA's Lexicon, but a number of roots have been added from other sources, chiefly TOTANES. These sources will be indicated as follows: T. = TOTANES, M. = MINGUELLA, C. = CAMPOMANES (cf. Bibliography). The most important roots are starred (*), those that have some irregularity other than or in addition to syncope are preceded by †. An alphabetical list of derivatives belonging to this latter group with the roots from which they are formed in parentheses is added at the end of the list of roots to facilitate the finding of the root when the derivative is given. The accents are marked in every case, but as some of the lists used as sources omit the accents of the derivatives, and as the sources do not always agree among themselves, the accents given to some of the derivatives are not certain.¹ For the prevailing ultimate accent of the syncopated forms cf. § 13, c. In this and the following appendices the vowels *u* and *o* are treated as one vowel in the alphabetical arrangement, following *n*, *ng*. Derivative particles other than *-in*, *-an* are indicated by italics. Some of the roots here given have also regular forms made with *-in*, *-an*.

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
*abâ	salute	ab'in, ab'an
agád	eat, T. hurry to	agdín, agdán
akíp T.	equalize	akpán
*†ala'ála C.	remember	alalahín, alalahánin
alágad	disciple, pupil	alagdín, alagdán

¹ So in the case of alalahín, bisín, bisán, bosán, dánin, dánan, dímin, díhan, gúran, giníkan, ginóhan, íwan, lisán, púsan.

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
alipin	slave	alipnín, alipnán
alipongǎ	chilblains, pain	aliponghín, aliponghán
*alisagâ T.	lazy	alisagan (= alisag'án?)
*anó	what?	anhín, anhán
†apâ	grope for	ap'ín, ap'án
apíd	fornicate	apdín, apdán
*†asáwa	spouse	asaw'ín
asín	salt	asnín, asnán
asód	pound rice	asdín, asdán
*†atip	roof	aptín, aptán
†ayáw	be unwilling	aywán, íwan
babâ	below, humble	bab'án
babá	carry on shoulders	babhín
bagâ	swelling	bag'ín, bag'án
†balâ	say	babal'ín, babal'án
bálâ T.	threaten	balin (= bal'ín?)
balagâ	be astonished	balaghán
*†balísa	uneasiness	balisanhín, balisanhán
†baníg	mat	banggín, banggán
*basâ	wet	bas'ín, bas'án
†basáhan	cloth, rag	basanhín
*batá	suffer	bathín, bathán
*bayô	grind rice	bay'ín, bay'án
*bigáy	give	bigyán
*†bihasá, bihása	be accustomed	bisanhín, bisanhán
†bíhis	change clothes	bisín, bisán
bikâ	split	bik'ín
*bilí	buy	bilhín, bilhán
†bílín	commission, charge	binlán
bobô	pour	bob'án
bugá	sprinkle with mouth	bughán
*†bóhos	pour	bosán
bokâ	open	bok'ín
bukás	open	buksán
bokó T.	joint, knuckle	himokhán
bokód	single	bokdín, bokdán
bonô	struggle	bon'ín

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
*†dáan	road	dánin, dánan
*dakíp	hold, stop	dakpín
*dalâ	carry	dalhín, dalhán
dalâ	punish severely	dal'in, dal'án
dali	make haste	dal'án
*damá	touch	damhín, damhán
*damít	clothe	damtín, damtán
dapâ, dapá	throw self headlong	dap'án, daphán
*†dating	arrive	datnín, datnán
†dím T.	eat	dímin
dikín T.	roller	diknán
*dikít	stick to	diktín, diktán
†dini	here	dinhán, díhan
*dingǵig	hear	dinggín, dinggán
dipá	open the arms	diphín, diphán
dugô	blood	dug'in, dug'án
†gab'í T.	night	gabhian? (<i>sic</i>)
*†ganáp	fulfil, do duty	gampán, kagampán
gatâ T.	cocconut milk	gatin (= gat'in?)
*gawâ	do, make	gaw'in, gaw'án
*†gáwad	give	gúran
*gibâ	demolish	gib'in, gib'án
†gibík	come with help	gikbán
†giík	thresh	gínikan
ginóo	noble	ginóhan
*gísing	awake	gisngán, gisnán
gíwà T. (-à?)	be turned upside down	giwin (= giw'in?)
hába T.	broaden	haban (= hab'án?)
†hablín	deposit	habinlán
*halatâ	conjecture	halat'in, halat'án
*†halík	kiss	hagkín, hagkán
*†halíli	substitute	halinhín, halinhán, ha- linlán
hapín	ribbon, band	hapnán
*†hasík	sow (seed)	haskán, haksán
*hatíd	escort	hatdán
†hibás T.	lower	hisbán

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
*higà	lie down	hig'án
higít	haul, pull	higtín, higtán
*†híhip, hiyíp	blow	hipán
hikit	weave	hiktín
*hinanakít	complain	hinanaktán
*†hintáy	wait for	hintín
*hingî	ask for	hing'in, hing'án
hingótò	delouse	hingót'in, hingót'án
hipà T.	sink	hipin (= hip'in?)
hirám	borrow	hirmín, hirmán
hiyâ	shame	hiyin, hiyan (= -'in, - 'án?)
hubád T.	disrobe	hubdín
hokás	loosen, untie	hoksín, hoksán
*ibá	other	ibhín, ibhán
ibís	unload, alight	ibsín, ibsán
igá	dry, thin	ighán
*igíð	go for water	igbín, igbán
*ihì	urinate	ihán
ipá	bran	iphín, iphán
kabilâ	other side	kabil'in, kabil'án
*kagát	bite	kagtín, kagtán
kailâ	deny, cloak	kail'án
*†káin	eat	kánin, kánan
kalág	untie, loosen	kalgín, kalgán
*kaliwâ	left hand	kaliw'in, kaliw'án
*kamít	obtain	kamtán
kanâ	put in place	kapakan'án
kapâ	grobe for	kap'in, kap'án
kápit	grasp, embrace	kaptín, kaptán
katá T.	thou and I, we two	kathán
†katí	itch	kathán, kakathán
†kibít	nibble	kibtín, -tán; kitbín, -bán
*†kilála	be acquainted with	kilanlín
†kinyíg T., kiníg }	hear	pakinggán
*kitíl	cut off	kitlín, kitlán

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
*†kúha	take	kúnin, kúnan
†kokó T.	finger-nail, claw	hinukhán
†korót	pinch	kotdín, kotdán
†labí	overplus	lab'án, labhán (<i>given</i> <i>by M. as from lábis</i>)
*lagáy	leave, place	lagyín, lagyán
lakás	strength	laksán
*lakí	be large, grow	lakhín, lakhán
lamán	the inside, flesh	lamnán
latâ	soften	lat'ín, lat'án
*layô	be distant	lay'án
†líhis	turn aside, deviate	lisán
limá	five	limhín, limhán
†liníb	close up	limbán
lingíd	cover up, hide	lingdán
†liríp	put, place	ligdín, ligdán
lisâ	nit	lis'ín, lis'án
logód	joy	logdín, logdán
†lonó	shed skin	longhán
lupî T.	double	lupan (= lup'án?)
lupít T.	abhor	kaluptán
*lorâ	spit	lod'án
lowâ	expel from mouth	low'án
malí	err	mal'ín, mal'án
mamá	chew betel	mam'ín
mamayâ	a little while after	mamay'ín
mangá	foolish	manghán
*masíd	observe	masdán
*mulâ	beginning	mul'án
*nipís	attenuate	nipsán
†ngangá	open mouth	nganhín, nganhán
nguyâ	chew	nguy'ín
*ogâ, ugâ T., M.	stir about, wriggle	ogín (= og'ín?)
olí, ulí	return, repeat	ol'ín, ol'án
*opó, upó	sit down	op'ín, op'án
opós	finish, stop	opsín
palagáy	settle, appease	palagyán

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
palamán	contain	palamnán
palít	exchange, barter	paltín, paltán
*†pakinyíg, -níg	listen	pakinggán
*†panagínip	dream	panagimpán
*†pañgálan	name	pañganlán
pañgati	leprosy	pañgathín
†pañgílin	keep a feast day	pañgínlán
*patíd	break, part (of rope)	patdín, patdán
†patnógot	preceding	panontán
patoyô	dry	patoyin (= patoy'ín?)
†páwis	sweat	pawsán, púsan
*pigâ	squeeze	pig'ín, pig'án
pilí T.	twist	pilhín
piníd	close up	pindán
pingí	handkerchief	pinghín, pinghán
pisâ	smash, crush	pis'ín, pis'án
*pisíl	wring	pislín
pugî	begin to weave	pug'ín, pug'án
pukól	throw	puklín, puklán
*pulí	be like parents	<i>pamulhán</i>
poló	ask for trifles	pulhín, pulhán
ponô	fill	pun'ín, pun'án
posód	tuft	pusdín, pusdán
putî	whiten	put'ín, put'án
*pútol	cut	putlín, putlán
púyo T.	saddle-bag, knapsack	poyhín
*sakáy	embark	sakyán
*sakít	be ill	saktín, saktán
*†sála	err, sin	sanlán
†salakáb T.	fish	sakbín
*salitâ	tell	salit'ín, salit'án
*samâ	evil	sam'ín, sam'án
samayâ	encourage to be ac- complice	samay'ín, samay'án
sanġá	branch	sanghín, sanghán
*saóli	come back, give back	saol'ín, saol'án
sapá	chewed betel	saphán

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
sapín	to line (clothes, etc.)	sapnán
*sigâ	burn rubbish	sig'án
sigíd	bite (of insects)	sigdán, sigdán
sikíp	constrict, tighten	sikpán
*silâ	devour, eat flesh	sil'ín, sil'án
silí	throw	silhín, silhán
*†silíd	put into	sidlán
simâ	fish	sim'ín, sim'án
singâ	blow nose	singhán
sipâ	abstain, fast	sip'án
siyâ	enough	siyhín
sobó	put out fire with water	subhán
†súlid	spin	sudlán
*sonód	follow, obey	sundín
tabâ	grease, fat	tab'án
*tagâ	chop	tag'ín
†tahíp	clean rice	taphán
*takâ	wonder at	takhán
tákid T.	stumble	takdán
*takíp	cover	takpán
*†taláb	penetrate	tablán
*talikód	turn the back	talikdán
talingíd	to hide, be hidden	talingdán
*†taním	sow, plant	tamnán
*tángan	grasp	tagnán
tayô	be erect	tay'án
tibâ	cut foot of banana tree	tib'ín, tib'án
tibí	be restrained, costive	tibhín
tigib	load with cargo	tigbín
*tikím	taste, try	tikmán
tikís	on purpose	tiksín
tingalâ	look up	ting'al'ín
tingí	buy or sell	ting'ín
†tingíd	resolve	tingdán
*tingín	look	tingnán
tipâ T.	measure	tipin (= tip'ín)
tipíd	save, economize	tipdín, tipdán

<i>Root</i>	<i>Meaning</i>	<i>Derivative</i>
†tirâ	be more than enough	tid'ân
†tirís	kill a louse with the nail	tisdán
tubâ	juice of cocoanut-palm	tub'ín, tub'án
*tubós	redeem	tubsín, tubsán
*tukâ	sting, bite	tuk'ín, tuk'án
tóngo	look down	tunghán
†túring	say	túran
*†totóo	true	totohánan
tuyô	dry	tuy'ín, tuy'án
walâ	not to be, have	wal'ín, wal'án
waní	beg for	wanhán
wilî T. (-î?)	love	wilín (= wil'ín?)

List of specially irregular derivatives:—alalahín, -hánin (ala'ála), aptín (atíp), asaw'ín (asáwa), babal'ín (balâ), balisanhín (balísa), banggín (baníg), basanhín (basáhan), binlán (bílin), bisanhín (bihása), bisín (bíhis), bosán (bóhos), dánin (dáan), datnín (datíng), dihan (díni), dímin (díim), gabhian? (gab'í), gampán (ganáp), gikan, *gín*ikan (gíik), gikbán (gibík), gúran (gáwad), habinlán (habílin), hagkán (halík), haksán (hasík), halinhín, halinlán (halíli), hintín (hintáy), *lín*ukhán (kokó), hipán (híhip), hisbán (hibás), íwan (ayáw), kakathán (katá), kánin (káin), kilanlán (kilála), kitbín (kibít), kúnin (kúha), kotdín (korót), lab'án (labí), ligdín (liríp), limbán (liníb), lisán (líhis), longhán (lonó), nğanhín (nğangá), pakinggán (pakinyíg, kinyíg), panagimpán (panagínip), panontán (patnógot), pañganlán (pañgálan), pañginlán (pañgílin), púsan (páwis), sakbín (salakáb), sanlán (sála), sidlán (silíd), sudlán (súlíd), tablán (taláb), tamnán (taním), taphán (tahíp), tid'án (tirâ), tigdín (tingíd), tisdán (tirís), túran (túring), totohánan (totóo).

B. List of roots ending in simple vowels that take H before the suffixes IN, AN.

This list is based on TOTANES (1865) pp. 126, 127, corrected by comparison with NOCEDA and other sources. TOTANES differs from NOCEDA in the accentuation of the following roots, viz.: abatayó, agoló, alí, árya, bárya, bóngso, dúmi, dusá, gánti.

gólo, hámbó, kabihása, pasoló, sámýo, sánga, sasá, suwí, tamasá, tangí, tapá, wáksi. The penultimate accent in forms with two consonants before the final vowel is almost certainly a mistake (cf. § 13, c), hence TOTANES' *pátá* which does not occur in NOCEDA has been corrected to *patdá*.

abála — occupation	baryá — copy
abaká — well now	bató — stone
abatá — well now	báwo — widowed
abatáyo — well now	báyo — stake
ága — breakfast	biktí — be angry
agipó — smudge, stain	biláwo — sieve
agólo — fornication	bingí — deafen
akó — I	bitóka — intestines
aksayá — destroy	bongsó — younger son
áli — compete	báli — polish
amá — father	búti — beautiful
aní — seize	daíti — to seat
aní'aní — courtesy	dalága — girl
anító — idol	dámi — increase
angká — appropriate	damó — sweepings, filth
angí — smoked	dáti — custom
apáya — be withered, mildewed	dayámi — straw
araó (<i>sic</i>)? — expand?	díto — here
aryá — protect	dólo — point
ása — hope	dumí — dirt, filth
asáwa — (<i>cf. Append. A</i>)	dúsa — penitence
áso — dog	gábi — sweet potato
ayró — ascend	gabí — night (<i>not in T.</i>)
bága — live coal	gagá — be restless, mis-
bágo — new	chievous
bagyó — tempest	gandá — beauty
báka — war	gantí — reward
baklá — take off skin	gáya — imitate
balahíbo — skin, pelt	gayóma — spell, sorcery
baláyi — agreement	giklá — terror
balíla — tablet	ginháwa — get better
balísa — restlessness	giwa — (<i>cf. giwà Append. A</i>)
bápa — father	goló — entangle

gómi — beard
 hambó — bathe
 halagá — price
 hayóma — copy
 hila — hurl
 hilápo — rub
 híslo — stunned
 hingá — breathe
 hulí — to steer
 húli — chase, catch
 húni — sing
 húsi — clothes
 igáya — covet
 ígi — adorn
 kabaláyi — relative
 kabihasá — friend
 kakaná — advise
 kalába — honeycomb
 kalamáyo — swelling
 kalawíngi — take care of
 káli — go away
 kamána — co-heir
 kamóti — sweet potato
 kampí — partiality
 kandádo — shutting, lock
 katálo — disputant
 káti — pound (weight)
 káya — be able
 kiló — twist
 lána — anoint, oil
 lantá — wither, fade
 lilo — be ungrateful, cruel
 lingó (*sic*) — turn?
 líso — be ratified?
 mantalá — enchantment
 óla — chance
 óna — first, before
 ópa — pay, wages

pagbá — burn pottery
 pági — clean, smooth
 pasólo — cross-bow
 pasubáli — except
 patdá — garter (*Sþ. liga*)?
 píro — shake out grain from ears
 píta — long for
 púri — praise
 sábi — say
 sagíla — to pass by
 sakbíbi — carry infants
 saksí — witness
 salísi — not to meet, flee
 sálo — eat
 sáma — accompany
 samantála — meanwhile
 sampága — jasmine
 samyó — fragrance, odor
 sangpá — put above
 sapúla — raise
 saríli — one's own
 saryá — prepare
 sása — split, crack
 siglá — incite
 simboyó — pour water for one
 another
 sintá — affection
 sugbá — throw, rush upon
 súka — vomit
 súwi — shoot, sprout
 taínga — ear
 talagá — intention, will
 tamása — enjoy food and drink
 tamó — use, advantage
 tángi — divide
 tápa — associated
 táwo — man
 tibaní — affirm what is not certain

tilí — astonishment, dread	toksó — temptation
tindí — load	tóta — puppy
tíwa — worms in body, hook	waksí — throw
tubó — sugar cane	yávi (<i>Sp. llave</i>) — key
tugpá — embark	

The following roots, which syncopate the final vowel of the root after adding *h*, and which are given in the proper order in Appendix A, also belong here. They are, viz.: alipongá, anó, babá, balagá, batá, bilí, bugá, bokó, dalá, damá, dapá, díni, dipá, ginóo, ibá, igá, ipá, katá, katí, kokó, labí, lakí, limá, lonó, mangá, ngangá, pangatí, pilí, pingí, pulí, poló, púyo, sangá, sapá, silí, singá, siyá, sobó, taká, tibí, tóngó, totóo, waní. A number of these also make regular forms without syncope.

The following roots given in Appendix A have this *h* preceded by *n*, viz.: balísa, bihása, halíli: in the root *gab'i* the derivative *gab'ian* T., if correct, is transposed for *gab'ihan*.

C. List of Polysyllabic Roots with initial P which are conjugated like PAKINABANG § 89.

This list is based on the list given by MINGUELLA, p. 293 f., with some additions from LENDOYRO. For an extensive treatment of these roots cf. SEIPLE's *Polysyllabic Roots*.

paága — rise early	panálig — trust
pakinábang — profit	panálo — conquer
pakiníg, pakinyíg — listen	panambítan — lament
paligò — bathe	panáog — descend from house
pamagá — swell	panasilà — sit crosslegged
pamáhay — live in a house	panáta — promise
pamanhíd — swell	panatíli — continue, persist
pamanhík — supplicate	panayimtím } — penetrate
pamaypóy — wag tail	panaimtím }
pamongkáhi — incite	paniín — lean on staff
panagáno — offer	paniklohód — kneel
panaghíli — envy	panimdíim — think
panaghóy — sigh, groan	paningkayád — squat on haunches
panaginip — dream	
panagisúyo — be subject to another	paniwála — trust
	panubíg — make water

panógot — guide	panğanyáya — damage
panólos — fulfil another's wil.	panğárap — dream (aloud)
panolúyan — live in an inn	panğayupapâ } — be humbled
panoód — see from afar, sight	panğayumpápà }
panuyô — serve	panğibig — court
panğahás — dare, venture	panğiboghô — be jealous
panğákò — promise	panğiki — tremble
panğálay — become tired from standing	panğilábot — shudder
panğalírang — be weak, lean	panğilag — be on guard, sneak away
panğálo — become tired	panğiláp — be scornful
panğalokipkíp — fold arms	panğilin — keep holiday
panğalumbábà — lean chin on hand, bury face in hands	panğiló — have toothache
panğalós — become tired	panğimbólo — envy
panğambá — fear, suspect	panğimi — be asleep, drowsy
panğanák — bear a child	panğinig — tremble
panğánay — have first child	panğulúgi — lose by trade
panğánib — fear, suspect	panğóna — precede
panğaninó — look in mirror	panğúsap — speak
	pangyári — be able

The following roots are accented differently in NOCEDA (N), LENDOYRO (L), and CAMPOMANES (C), viz., pamáypoy (N), panalig (L), panasilâ (L), panóod (N, L, C), panúyò (N, L, C), panğamba (N, L), panğanino (C), panğayupápà (N, C; *panğayumpápà* is taken from L), panğilap (N), panğilo (C), panğoná (L).

INDEXES.

I. Subjects.

The references in all the Indexes are to pages. Note that (ref.) after a number in this and following indexes calls special attention to additional references on the page in question.

Accent: general rules 9, 10; as an indication of meaning 11; secondary 11; shift of 11, 55, 82, Addenda pp. 11, 239; accented prefixes 10.

Active: cf. Verbs.

Address, forms of: 17, 18, 210, 211.

Adjectives: descriptive 35, 103, 104; two adjectives with one noun 104; comparative of 36, 118, 160, 161; relative superlative of 36, 118, 163, 164; absolute superlative of 36, 37, 163—165; of equality 37, 89, 118, 119, 160, 161, 164, 171; derivative 83—95; with dependent case or prep. phrase 116; with nominal modifiers 119; special syntax of 223—228; verbs derived from 273—274; pronominal, cf. Pronouns; numeral, cf. Numerals.

Adverbs: classes with regard to meaning 63; classes with regard to form 74; of manner 63, 64, 235, 236; with prefixed *ga* 21, 22, 64, 69, 74, 78, 101, 102, 113, 119, 120, 121, 152, 159, 160, 171, 172, 187, 197, 239, 240, 280, 281, Addenda p. 18; indicating a gradual development 64; of time 64—68, 236; of place 68, 69, 131, 132, 133; of degree 69, 70, 237; affirmative 70, 237—239; negative 71, 165—166 (ref.); interrogative 71, 72, 132, 151, 167—169 (ref.), 239, 240; modal 72, 73, 240—242; consecutive

73, 242—244; numeral cf. Numerals; comparison of 75; as nominal and pronominal modifiers 107, 113; as adjectival and adverbial modifiers 116, 117, 119, 120; with following case 120, 121; in non verbal sentences 137—139; as verbal modifier 150—153; special syntax of 234—244; equivalents of 235; verbs derived from 279—281; uses of special adverbs cf. Index II.

Alphabet: 3, 4.

American loan words: 2.

Antecedent of relative: 178—180.

Apposition: 105, 106, 113, 152, 153, 233—234 (ref.).

Articles: in general 16; with nouns 32—34, 98, 99; special syntax of 205—209 (ref.); def. art. with adverbial expressions 75, 76, 121; def. art. with pronouns 114; def. art. with verbs 146, 147; def. art. with adverbial construction 194.

Auxiliary verbs: 154—157, 225, 252, 288.

Be, idea of *to*: 37, 128—133, 134 (there is), 136—139, 157, 157—172 passim, 279, 280.

Cardinals: cf. Numerals.

Cases: forms in general 229; of articles 16; of pronouns 17—20; of numerals 16, 17; of nouns 32—34; nominative 229—230 (ref.); indef. depend. nominative 230 (ref.); nom-

- inative absolute 157; genitive 230—231 (ref.); genitive equivalent to appositive 234; oblique 231 (ref.); vocative 34, 170; relation of indef. nom., gen., obl. 231, 232.
- Categories: cf. Grammatical.
- Chinese: 2.
- Clauses: principal or independent 173; subordinate or dependent 173, 178—197; kinds of subordinate 178; equivalents of subordinate clauses 245, 246; as nominal modifier 108; introduced by ligature 178—181, 183—186; causal 189, 190; comparative 187, 188; concessive 190, 191; conditional 191—193; noun 181—185, 228, 229; subject 146, 147, 182, 184; object 183—185; purpose 186; relative 178—183; result 185; temporal 188, 189; of indirect question 193.
- Combination of nominal modifiers: 108, 109 (cf. also Addenda).
- Combinatory syntax: cf. Syntax of combinations.
- Comparison: 158—165, 205.
- Complex sentence: cf. Sentence.
- Compound sentence: cf. Sentence.
- Conjunctions: list 77—80; with adverbs 125, 126; with other conjunctions 126; with adverbial construction 194; special syntax of 245—246.
- Connective particles: 292—296 (ref.).
- Constructions: interrelations of 297, 298; types of 298, 299.
- Coordinated expressions: 109, 110, 115, 126, 127, 173—177.
- Definite article: cf. Articles.
- Demonstratives: cf. Pronouns.
- Denominative verbs: cf. Verbs.
- Dependent clauses: cf. Clauses.
- Derivation: 13, 38—40, 74, 82—96; cf. also *man* 239 (cf. also Addenda) and Addenda p. 18.
- Descriptive adjectives: cf. Adjectives.
- Diacritical marks: 4, 5.
- Dialect: of Manila 9; of mountains 28; forms of 'ten' 22, 27 note; *maka* verbs 47.
- Distributives: cf. Numerals, also 58 (§ 90).
- Elision: 8.
- Ellipsis: 204—205.
- Forms of Address: cf. Address.
- Fractions: cf. Numerals.
- Gender: 17, 34.
- Genitive: cf. Cases.
- Glottal catch: 4, 5, 6, 7.
- Grammatical categories, general relations of: 296—299 (ref.).
- Guttural nasal: 6, 7.
- Guttural vowels: 5, 6.
- Have*, idea of *to*: 37, 130—136, 137—139, 155—156, 158—168 passim, 255, 280, 289, 290.
- Imperative: cf. Verbs.
- Inclusive article: cf. Articles.
- Indefinite article: cf. Articles.
- Indefinite dependent nominative: cf. Cases.
- Indefinite pronominal ideas, expression of: cf. Pronouns, indefinite, also 58 (§ 90).
- Independent clauses: cf. Clauses.
- Infinitive: cf. Verbs.
- Inflection: general character of 13; of pronouns 16—20; of verbal particles 38—41; of verbal roots 56—58.
- Interjections: 80, 81, 169—171.
- Interrogative words: cf. Adverbs, Pronouns, also 192.
- Involved sentence: cf. Sentence.
- Ligature: 15, 16, 292—295 (ref.); with adverbial construction 194.
- Literature, Tagalog: cf. Tagalog.

Loan words in Tagalog: cf. Tagalog.

Maledictions: cf. Oaths.

Measures: cf. Weights.

Members of compound sentence:
173—177, 245, 246.

Modal auxiliaries: cf. Auxiliary verbs.

Mode: cf. Verbs.

Negatives: cf. Adverbs, Sentence.

Nominative: cf. Cases.

Nouns: kinds of, with regard to form
32; derivative 82—96, Addenda
p. 86; proper 33, 34; of relation-
ship, cf. *mag*. Index III and 105,
208; classes of deriv. nouns with
regard to meaning 224; verbal
82—84, 138, 139, 144, 145, 286,
287; syntax of derivative nouns
224—229; special syntax of nouns
in general 223, 224; verbs derived
from 273, 274.

Numerals: cardinals 22—24, 219
(ref.); ordinals 24, 25, 220 (ref.);
fractions 25, 26, 219 (ref.); distrib-
utives 26, 27, 220—222 (ref.), 237;
adverbs 27, 28, 121, 223; restric-
tives 29, 222; ancient system
29—32, 110; verbs derived from
276—279.

Oaths and Maledictions: 171, 172.

Oblique: cf. Cases.

Oratio obliqua: 184, 193.

Oratio recta: 185.

Ordinals: cf. Numerals.

Orthography: Spanish 3; improved
3, 4.

Parenthetical expressions: 196, 197.

Participles: 82, 146, 147, 233, 285,
286; equivalents of English abso-
lute 177, 188, 189, 287.

Particles: in general 12, 13; deriv-
ative verbal 38—40; der. nominal
82—96; der. adverbial 74.

Parts of speech: enumeration of 13;
combinations of 97, 98; inter-
relations of 296, 297.

Passive: cf. Verbs.

Phonetic changes: vowels 6, 8; con-
sonants 7, 8, 54, 55; sporadic 8,
54, 55; cf. also Addenda p. 8.

Phrases: definition 97; nouns derived
from 228, 229; verbs derived from
279—281; prepositional phrase, cf.
Prepositions.

Plural: in general 32, 33, 35, 37,
232—233 (ref.); of proper nouns
208, 209; *mag* and *pag* indi-
cating abundance, plurality 88,
253 (bis).

Postpositives: 199—200 (ref.).

Prepositions: list 76, 77; preposition
and object 123—125; prepositional
phrase as modifier 106, 107,
116, 125, 153; prep. phrase with
modifiers 125; special syntax of
244 245 (ref.); equivalents of pre-
positional phrases 141, 142, 244,
245.

Principal clauses: cf. Clauses.

Pronouns: in general 16, 17; person-
al 17, 18, 209—211 (ref.); posses-
sive 18, 211; demonstrative 18,
211—212 (ref.); relative 19, 212—
213 (ref.); interrogative 19, 20,
213—215 (ref.); indefinite 20—22,
115, 156, 158, 215—219; of simi-
larity 219 (ref.); nominal modifiers
of 114, 115; verbs derived from
275, 276.

Pronunciation: vowels 5; diphthongs
6; consonants 6, 7.

Proper article: cf. Articles.

Proper nouns: cf. Nouns.

Quasi-verbs: 37, 38, 127—139, 155—
157, 246.

Reduplication: 201—204 (ref.).

Reflexive verbs: cf. Verbs.

Relationship, nouns of: cf. Nouns.

Relatives: cf. Pronouns.

Repetition: 204 (ref.), Addenda
p. 204.

Retrospective words: 180, 181.

Roots: in general 12; derivation of 13; as nouns 32; root form of verb 283, 284; syncopated 300—307; taking *h* before passive suffixes 307—310; polysyllabic roots like *pakindang* (§ 89) 273, 310, 311; reduplicated, cf. Reduplication.

Sanskrit: 1.

Sentence: simple sentence in general 127, 128, 173; with non-verbal predicate 128—139; with verbal predicate 140—155; negative 136, 147, 148, 165, 166; interrogative, 136—137 (ref.) 148, 149, 150, 151, 167—169 (ref.); exclamatory 169—172; with indefinite element 157, 158; comparative 158—165; desiderative 172; compound sentences 173—177, 194; juxtaposed sentences 177; complex sentences 178—195; involved sentences 195—196.

Simple sentence: cf. Sentence.

Simple vowels: 5.

Spanish: loan words 1, 28; influence on syntax 1—2 (ref.); orthography 3; numerals 24.

Stems, active and passive: 40 (cf. Addenda).

Subordinate clauses: cf. Clauses.

Superlative: 36, 37, 38, 77, 118, 163—165.

Syllable division: 8, 9.

Syncope: 8, 54, 55, 300—307.

Syntax: of combinations 97, 98; special 201.

Tagalog: where spoken 1; speech family 1; literature of 3; loan words in 1, 2; Spanish constructions in 1, 2; characteristic features of 2.

Tense: cf. Verbs.

Themes, passive: 40.

Verbs: classes with respect to form 38—40; classes with respect to meaning 282, 283; causatives 282 (ref.), 289; reflexive verbs 211, 282 (11); verbs of destruction 250, 259, 260, 272; verbs of ordering to order 269, 288; verbs of pretending 253, 271; mode and tense forms 40, 41, 51, 284—286, 287—289; imperative 40, 53, 54, 145, 146, 257, 263, 284, 285, Addenda p. 255; infinitive, dependent 108, 117, 153—157, 225; finite modal 178, 179, 181, 182, 183, 186, 191, 192, 193; perfect tenses 262, 285 (present), 287, 288; conjugation of verbal groups 41—49; meaning and use of verbal classes 248—268; secondary and tertiary derivation 50—52, 269, 270, 292; from fully reduplicated roots 53, 270—272; with subsidiary particles 59—63, 272 (ref.), Addenda p. 143; irregularities and peculiarities 53—59, 300—311; root forms 283, 284; combinations of the verbal forms 140—157; special syntax in general 246; use of active and passive 246—248 (ref.), 248—268 passim, 270; difference between *um* and *mag* 248—253; use of *pag* in passive of *mag* 253 254; use of *mag* or *pag* to denote reciprocity 249, 253 (bis), 256, 259, 271; from other parts of speech 272—281; denominative verbs 273, 274; depronominal verbs 275, 276; from numerals 276—279; from adverbs and phrases 279—281; from quasi-verb *na* 58, 59, 132; from foreign words 252, 253; government of verbs 140—144, 149, 150, 289—292; verbs with both direct and indirect objects 149, 150; syntax of verbal nouns, cf. Nouns.

Vocative: cf. Cases.
Voice: cf. Verbs.
Wagers: 85, 227.

Weights and Measures: 29, 93, 110,
221, 222, 278.
Word Order: 197—200 (ref.).

II. Symbolic Words.¹

For the various articles, pronouns, numerals, adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions that are not given here cf. the proper heading in Index I.

a-: 'say' 37, 136.
a: interj. 81, 170, 171.
a: 'father of' 16, 99, 208.
abá: 'alas!' 80, 169.
alalaóng: 'i. e.' 73, 120, 241, 243.
alangán: 'waning' 21, 162.
anáki: cf. *tíla*.
anó: 'what?' 19, 20, 100, 101, 112,
131, 132, 134, 149, 167 (ref.), 168,
170, 171, 191, 192, 214, 215, 227,
228, 275, 276.
anoanó: 20, 215.
a-ng: 'father of' cf. *a*.
at: 'and' 23, 77, 80, 104, 109, 110,
115, 126, 127, 164, 167, 168, 173,
174, 186, 190, 195, 196, 204, 205,
214, 215, 219, 245, 246, 262, 263,
298, 299; cf. also *báwa't*.
ay: connective 80, 295—296 (ref.).
ay: vocative part. 34, 170.
ayá: interj. 81, 170, 171, 199, 200.
ayáw: 'be unwilling' 155, 283.
babáyi: 'feminine, female' 34, 104.
bagá: interr. and consec. adv. 71,
73, 120, 121, 122, 125, 137, 148,
149, 167—169, 174, 175, 199, 200,
239, 241, 243.
bágo: adv. and conj. 67, 73, 78, 188,
189, 236, 243.
bahági: 'part' 25, 26, 102, 219.
bakâ: cf. *makâ*.
bákit: 'why?' 71, 73, 151, 168, 189,
190, 243.

bálang: 'each, every' 20, 101, 109,
114, 218, 221, 293.
bapá: cf. *ayá*.
báwa't: 'each, every' 20, 101, 221,
293.
béses: 'times' 28.
bód: cf. *dilán*.
dámi: 'much' 161, 162.
dangán: cf. *kundángan*.
dapat: 'ought' 155, 283.
daw: adv. 72, 121, 199, 200, 241.
dí: 'not' 71, 116, 130, 147, 148, 165,
166, 228, 239.
dí bákin, d. bákit: 73, 243.
dí hámak: cf. *dí sapála*.
dilá(n): 'all' 21, 216, 217.
dili: 'not' cf. *dí*; 'or not' 175.
din: 'same, self' 22, 70, 113, 121, 122,
143, 166, 199, 200, 211, 218, 226,
238.
dí palák: cf. *dí sapála*.
dí sapála: 'very' 36, 69, 121.
disín: cf. *sánà*.
diwâ: cf. *tíla*.
diyáta: 'and so' 73, 243.
ga: 'like' 76, 159; cf. also *ga*-Index III.
gaalín: cf. *gaanó*.
gaanó: 'how?' 64, 118, 119, 129, 171,
239, 240.
ganán: 'concerning' 21, 77, 111, 124,
218.
gáya: cf. *pára*.
háan: 'where?' 71 (Addenda), 132.

¹ Symbolic words are those which do not present a definite idea to the mind like nouns, verbs, and adjectives, but are simply symbols of some presentive idea or of some relation between ideas.

- haniá: 'understand?' 72, 169.
 hindí: cf. *di*.
 hindíganoón, h.gay'ón: 'isn't it so?' 72, 169.
 humingí: 'to request' 288, 289.
 huwág: 'don't' 71, 73, 79, 148, 172, 182, 186, 192, 236, 239, 241, 281.
 i: 'mother of' 16, 99, 208.
 ibá: 'other' 20, 22, 76, 101, 109, 111, 113, 114, 215, 216, 276.
 íbig: 'will, want' 154, 155, 283.
 ikailán: 'the how-many-eth?' 25, 214, 220, 277.
 ikalawá: 'second' 25, 112, 164, 165, 220.
 ilán: 'how many?' 'some' 19, 20, 22, 24—29, 100, 101, 134, 135, 139, 215, 227, 276—279; cf. also *ikailán*.
 indí: cf. *di*.
 isá: 'a, one, other' 16, 20, 22 (bis), 23—32 passim, 33, 65, 66, 102, 109, 113, 158, 209, 215, 219 (3, 4), 236, 276—278.
 isamán, isá man: 'any' 20, 22, 158.
 ka: 'brother of' 16, 99, 208.
 kahimanwári: cf. *nawá*.
 kailán: 'when?' 71, 151.
 kailángan: 'must' 155.
 kápag, kapagká: 'as soon as' 79, 188, 189.
 kapalápa: neg. adv. 71, 73, 239.
 kapuwá: 'neighbor' 20, 113, 216.
 kasí: cf. *tla*, also 121, 199, 200.
 kauntí: 'a little' 21, 22, 228.
 kayá: cf. *bagá*, also 73, 108, 120, 125, 126, 190, 193, 242, 243.
 kay sa: 207.
 kuán: 'so and so' 20, 218, 219, 276.
 kúlang: 'less' 21, 77, 111, 112 (bis) 123, 124, 161, 162, 217, 245.
 kun: 'if, when, or' 66, 77, 79, 126 (bis) 174, 175, 188, 189, 191, 192, 193, 204, 221, 245, 263.
 kundángan: 'if it were not that' 79, 123, 191, 192.
 kundí: 'if not, but' 78, 79, 123, 174, 191, 192, 193, 245.
 kundí bagkús: 'but' 78, 194.
 kun sánà, kun sána(n) sa: 73, 244.
 konó: cf. *daw*.
 labí: numeral elem. 23.
 lábis: 'more' 21, 112, 217.
 labí sa: 'more than' 24, 30, 31, 111.
 lahát: 'all' 21, 101, 112, 113, 216, 217, 232, 276.
 laláki: 'masculine, male' 34, 104.
 lálò: 'more' 21, 36, 69, 75, 118, 119, 160—165.
 lálò pa: cf. *lálò*.
 lámang: 'only' 70, 79, 107, 113, 119, 121, 143, 192, 199, 200, 222, 238, 293.
 lubhá: 'very' 36, 69, 117, 164, 165.
 maálam: 'know how' 155, 252.
 maanó: 'how?' 72, 74, 239, 240, 275.
 maáno: cf. *nawá*.
 magbílin: 'to order' 288.
 magkanó: 'how much?' 19, 20, 85, 168, 215, 232, 276.
 magkapára, magkapáris: 'equally' 70, 119, 161.
 magkaroón: 'to have' 280, 289, 290.
 mag'ótos: 'to order' 288.
 magsúkat: 'just as much' 223.
 mahángã: 'would be better' 73, 241.
 mahígít: 'more' 21, 111, 112, 162, 217.
 maká: 'lest' 71, 73, 78, 119, 125, 151, 166, 172, 186, 239.
 malakí: 'large' 228.
 man: 'even, altho' 20, 22, 64, 70, 72, 78, 79, 121 (Addenda), 126 (bis), 127, 158, 166, 173, 190, 191, 199, 200, 238, 239 (cf. Addenda).
 manaá: 'behold!' 81, 170.
 mandín: 'indeed' 70, 75, 121, 199, 200, 238, 239.
 mangá: pl. sign 15, 20, 32, 33, 35, 98, 100, 103 (bis), 119, 208, 209, 232, 233, 293; cf. also *manãa*-
 Index III.

mangyári: 'be able' 45, 84, 155, 225, 288.
 maráhil: 'perhaps' 72, 240, 241.
 marámi: 'much, many' 21, 101, 135, 136, 230, 232.
 marúnung: 'know how' 155, 252.
 may: 'to have' 37, 93, 133—139, 155, 156, 158, 162, 164, 165, 179, 198, 226, 230 (bis), 231, 232.
 maydini, maydito, maydiyán: 'have here,' 'have there' 133, 134.
 mayroón: cf. *may*.
 múna: adv. 'first' 67, 121, 188, 189, 199, 200, 236.
 muntí: 'a little' 21, 22, 36, 114, 226, 228.
 -n: ligature 15.
 na: ligature 292—295 (ref.), especially 293 (ref.).
 na: 'to be in, have' 37, 38, 58, 59, 130—133, 137, 138, 139, 157, 179, 198 (bis).
 na: 'now, already' 66, 80, 121, 122, 123, 175, 176, 199, 200, 207, 211, 237, 260, 262, 287, 288; cf. also *na-ng*.
 naitó, naiyán: cf. *narini*.
 namán: 'also' 70, 107, 114, 121, 122, 125, 134, 153, 199, 200.
 nandini, nandito, nandiyán, nandoón: 'be here,' 'be there' 38, 131.
 na-ng: adv. 78, 122, 123, 169, 204.
 nang anó: 'of what?' 214, cf. *nino*.
 naúna: 'first' 25, 111.
 narini, naríto, nariyán, naroón: 'be here,' 'be there' 131.
 naríto: 'behold!' 81, 170, 184.
 nawá: 'would that' 72, 121, 172, 199, 200, 240.
 nayaón, nayari: cf. *narini*.
 nino: 'whose?' 19, 136, 214, cf. *nang anó*.
 ninsán: = minsán 'once' 28.
 -ng: ligature 292—295 (ref.).
 ngá: adv. 70, 121, 122, 199, 200, 237.

ngáni: cf. *nga*.
 ngayón: 'today, now' 65, 75, 237.
 o: 'or' 126, 174, Addenda, p. 77.
 opán: cf. *upán*.
 oy: cf. *ay*.
 pa: 'more, yet' cf. *lálò*, also 70, 113, 121, 125, 138, 139, 143, 175, 192, 193, 199, 200, 226, 237.
 paanò: 'how?' 72, 138, 139, 192, 239, 240.
 pag, pagká: cf. *kápag*.
 palá: adv. and interj. 70, 80, 121, 199, 200, 238.
 pan: 'father of' 16, 99, 208.
 pangalawá: 'second' 25.
 pangatló: 'third' 25.
 pára: 'like' 21, 112, 113, 117, 152, 153, 158, 159, 160, 187, 219.
 parapára: 'equally' 70, 160.
 páris: cf. *pára*.
 pasubáli: 'less' 36, 69, 118, 161.
 pasubáli sa: 'except that' 79, 192.
 páwà: cf. *dilán*.
 písan: cf. *dilán*.
 pô: 'sir, ma'am' 121, 147, 199, 200, 210, 211, 242.
 pólo: 'ten' 22, 27 note.
 sa: obl. of art. *ang*, cf. Articles, Index I.
 sa: adv. cf. *sàna*.
 saán: 'where?' 71, 72, 132, 138, 151, 152, 181, 193, 227, 228, 239, 279, 280.
 sakáll: 'perhaps' 72, 119, 121, 122, 125, 199, 200, 239, 240, 241.
 sa kaná, sa kay: 132.
 sakdál: 'essence' 165.
 salámat: 'thanks, welcome' 80, 81, 169.
 sa makatúwid: 'i. e.' 73, 120, 122, 241, 243, 244.
 sampón: 'together with' 8, 77, 124, 245.
 sánà: adv. 72, 121, 122, 192, 199, 200, 240.

saríli: 'own' 21, 211, 217, 218.
 sarisári: 'various' 21, 232.
 si: art. 16, 33, 207—208 (ref.).
 si: interj. 81, 170, 171.
 siná: art. 16, 33, 34, 209 (ref.)
 sínó: 'who?' 19, 20, 111, 129, 131,
 132, 149, 150, 167 (ref.) 193, 213,
 214, 276.
 siyá: 'he, she, it' 17, 19, 21, 80, 122,
 180, 181, 182, 194, 211, 276.
 siyá nawâ: 'amen' 80, 211.
 siyá ngã: 'surely' 80, 211.
 súkat: 'should, deserve' 155, 283,
 288.
 tábi: 'with permission' 72, 242.
 talagá: 'by nature' 73, 241, 242.
 taná(n): cf. *dilán*.
 tantô: 'indeed' 70, 139, 237, 239.

tayó: 'we' 17, 210, 220.
 tíla: 'it seems' 72, 240.
 tolóy: 'together with' 73, 124, 243,
 245.
 tumbás: 'apiece' 70, 107, 113, 119,
 237, 281.
 túwing: 'every, whenever' 21, 66, 78,
 188, 189, 218.
 upán: adv. and conj. 72, 78, 186, 240.
 walá: 'is not, has not' cf. *na* 'to be
 in, have' and *may*, also 38, 71
 132, 135, 228, 245.
 walá-ng dí walá: 132.
 walá-ng walá: 38, 135.
 wári: interr. part. 71, 121, 168, 199,
 200.
 yátà: 'it seems' 72, 126, 121, 122,
 199, 200, 240.

III. Derivative Particles.

The hyphen (- or —) indicates the position of the word which is derived with the particle. Note n. = nominal, including adjectival; pr. = pronominal, including numeral; v. = verbal; av. = adverbial.

-an: n. 84, 85, 227, 229; cf. also *in—*
an, *ka—an*, *pala—an*, *pinag—an*,
sang—an, *sangka—an*: v. passive
 40, 41—58 passim, 274, 281; v.
 subsidiary 62, 253, 255, 256, 259,
 261, 271, 272.
 ga-: v. 63; av. 63, 64, 69, 74, cf. also
kasingga-, and Adverbs with pre-
 fixed *ga* Index I.
 gaga-: av. 74.
 gangga-: av. 74.
 hi-: v. passive of *manhi* 46.
 i-: v. 40, 41—58 passim, 254, 274,
 280.
 -i: v. 40, 54, 62, 281.
 ika-: pr. 24, 25; v. 51, 55, 270.
 im-, -im-: v. 56.
 -in: n. 86, cf. also *ma—in*; v. 40,
 41—58 passim, 251, 252, 273, 274,
 275, 277, 278, 280, 281.

in-, -in-: n. 87; v. 40, 41, 42—58 pas-
 sim, 58 (§ 90).
 in—an, -in—an: n. 87, cf. also *pinag—*
an.
 ina-, ini-: v. 42, 56.
 ka-: n. 88, 89, 225, 245, 273, 274 (8,
 10, 12), cf. also *maka-(n-)*; v. pas-
 sive of *ma-* and *maka-* 39, 47, 270,
 280, 281, 291; v. subsidiary 59, 60,
 143, 144, 175, 176; av. 65, 74.
 ka—an: n. 88 (ter), 89—91, 171 225,
 226, 228, 273, 274, cf. also *sangka—*
an; v. 59, 61, 143, 144, 190, 242.
 kamaka-: av. 28, 65, 74.
 kapag-: v. 59, 60, 61, 143, 144, 176,
 177, cf. also *kápag* Index II.
 kapagka-: v. cf. *kapag-*, and *kapagká*
 Index II.
 kasing-: n. cf. *sing-*, also 64.
 kasingga-: av. 64, 74.

-la-, -li-, -lo-: n. 82 note.

ma-: n. 35, 91, 92, 273, 274; v. active 47, 51, 259—261, 270, 272, 275, 282, 283, 289; passive of *ma-* and *maka-* 47, 48, 51, 83, 176, 260, 262—264, 270, 275, 288, 291; av. 63, 74.

má-: passive of *maká-*.

ma—an: cf. *-an* subsidiary.

ma—in: n. 92, 94.

mag-: n. 92, 93, 109, 110, 227; v. 38, 41, 43, 44, 50, 51, 248—250, 252—254, 269, 270 (bis), 271, 273, 275—281, 282, 283, 289.

mag—an: cf. *-an* subsidiary.

maghi—an: cf. *manhi—an*.

magin(g)-: v. 38, 44, 257, 274—277, 281, 282, 289.

magka-: n. 37, 93, 119, 160, 161; v. 38, 44, 50, 255, 270, 271, 276, 280, 281, 282, 289, 290.

magka—an: cf. *-an* subsidiary.

magkan-: v. 38, 44, 45, 257, 282, 289.

magkapa-: v. 38, 45, 257, 282, 289.

magkasing-: n. 37, 93, 160.

magpa-: v. 38, 48, 49, 50, 265—268, 269, 275, 276, 282, 283, 288, 289, 290; cf. also *pa-* passive.

magpaka-: v. 38, 49, 268, 271, 282, 289.

magpati-: v. 38, 45, 257, 258, 282, 289.

magsa-: v. 38, 44, 254, 255, 283, 289.

magsi-: v. 38, 41, 44, 50, 52, 254, 269, 282, 292.

maka-: n. 92, 273; v. active 38, 47, 50 (bis), 51, 52, 83, 176, 261—263, 269, 282, 283, 287, 288, 289(ter), 292; passive of *ma-* 47, 48; av. 27, 28, 74.

maká-: v. 10, 47, 48, 262, 263, 274.

maki-: v. 38, 44, 51, 58, 255, 256, 269, 274, 277, 278, 282, 283, 289, 290, 291; av. 28.

maki—an: cf. *-an* subsidiary.

makipag—an: cf. *maki—an*.

man-: n. 93, 221, 222, 278; pr. 27; v. 38, 45, 46, 258, 272, 280, 282, 283, 289.

manhi-: v. 38, 46, 258, 259, 283, 289.

manhi—an: cf. *-an* subsidiary.

mang̃a-, mang̃ag-, mang̃agka-, mang̃agsi-: cf. *ng̃a-*.

mapa-: v. 51, 270, 275, 282.

mapag-; n. 92.

mapagpala-: n. 94.

mapaka-, mapaki-, mapati-: v. 51, 270, 282.

may-: n. 93, 135.

mayka-: pr. 30—32, 110.

na-: v. present of *um* class 56: preterite and present of *pa* class 48.

na-, nag-, nagin(g)-, nagka-, nagkan-, nagkapa-, nagpa-, nagpaka-, nagpati-, nagsa-, nagsi-, naka-, naki-, nan-, nanhi-: used in preterite and present (with reduplication) instead of corresponding *m* particles; cf. also 40, 28 (pr.).

ni-: v. 56.

ng̃a-: v. 62, 253, 254, 255, 261.

um-: cf. after *l*.

pa-: n. 59; v. active 38, 48, 50, 264, 265, 269, 280, 282, 283, 288, 289, 290, 291; also passive of *pa-* and *magpa-* 39, 49, 264, 265, 266—268, 275, 278, 281, 289, 292; av. 59, 74.

pá-: v. 10, 59, 61, 62, 143, 146.

pag-, pagin(g)-, pagka-, pagkan-, pagkapa-, pagpa-, pagpaka-, pagpati-, pagsa-, pagsi-, paki-, pan-, panhi-: passive forms of corresponding *m* particles; cf. also 39.

pag-: n. 83, 88, 93; v. subsidiary, cf. *kāpag-* and *pag* Index II; v. passive, cf. *pag-* above.

pagka-: n. 93, 94, 226, 228, 229; v. subsidiary, cf. *kāpag-* and *pagká* Index II; v. passive, cf. *pag-* above.

pagká-: n. 10, 94, 170, 171.

- paka-: v. subsidiary 59, 61, 143, 144;
 also passive of *magpaka*- 39, 49,
 268.
 pala-: n. 94, 273, cf. also *mapagpala*-.
 pala-an-: n. 94.
 pan-: n. 94, 95, 274; v. passive, cf.
 pag- above.
 pinag-an-: n. 88.
 sa-: pr. 25; v. passive of *magsa*- 39,
 44, 255.
 sang-: n. 95, 104, 105; pr. 23.
 sang-an-: n. 95.
 sangka-an-: n. 95, 228.
 sing-: n. 37, 89, 95, 160, 273, 274, cf.
 also *kasing*-, *magkasing*-.
 tag-: n. 96.
 taga-: n. 96, 227, 228, 229, 273.
 tig-: pr. 26, 27, 103, 221, 222, 278.
 um-, -um-: v. 38, 41, 42, 50, 248—252,
 269, 270, 271, 275, 276, 278, 279,
 280, 289.
 -y: n. 34, cf. also Addenda p. 86.

Addenda and Corrigenda.

Page	Line	Present text	Correction
7	6	inverted	reversed.
8	bet. 2 and 3	—	<i>add</i> — The nasals <i>n</i> and <i>ng</i> may become <i>m</i> before the labials <i>b</i> and <i>p</i> , e. g., <i>limbân</i> 'closed up' (< <i>linibân</i>), <i>sampôwò</i> 'ten' (< <i>sangpôwò</i>).
11	end	—	<i>add</i> — The accent is also frequently shifted in other cases (cf. §§ 83, 140).
18	§ 25 end	—	<i>add</i> — From the nominative of the personal pronouns adverbs meaning 'like' may be formed by prefixing <i>ga</i> , e. g., <i>gaakó</i> 'like me' (cf. § 123).
22	10	<i>isamán</i>	<i>isamán</i> or <i>isá man</i> .
23	2	<i>labí</i>	<i>labí</i> .
23	7, 8	<i>pówò</i> ...followed	<i>pówò</i> ... followed.
27	note	<i>pólo</i> ...Totanes	<i>pólò</i> . . . TOTANES.
29	16	<i>titig'ílan</i>	<i>titig'ílan</i>
40	5	—	<i>add</i> — The combinations formed by prefixing the active and special passive particles to the root will be called active and passive stems respectively.
54	§ 81, a end	—	<i>add</i> — For a list of these roots cf. Appendix B, p. 307 ff.
55	§ 81 end	—	<i>add</i> — For a complete list of syncopated passives cf. Appendix A, p. 300 ff.
55	2 (§ 82)	(cf. § 75)	(cf. § 75, i).
58	9	—	<i>add</i> — For a list of these roots cf. Appendix C, p. 310 f.
59	§ 94 end	—	<i>add</i> — The root <i>ala'ála</i> 'remember' makes the contracted <i>in</i> passives <i>alalahín</i> , <i>alahánin</i> , cf. Appendix A.
62	3 (§ 104)	and <i>manhi</i> classes	<i>manhi</i> and <i>ma</i> classes.
71	4 (from bot.)	<i>saán</i> 'where?'	<i>saán</i> } 'where?' <i>háan</i> }
77	last	<i>kun</i> 'or'	<i>kun</i> } 'or.' <i>o</i> }

Page	Line	Present text	Correction
78	9 (§ 137)	konowári	konowári.
79	9	sa pagká	sapagká.
86	4,5 (§ 146, e)	kánin kakanín	} 'food, kánin 'food, boiled rice' boiled rice' kakanín 'sweetmeat' }
86	end	—	
		—	<i>add</i> — THE SUFFIX Y. § 146. 2. This is a hypocoristic suffix added to abbreviated personal names, cf. § 47.
89	2 (§ 149, g)	—	<i>add</i> — cf. § 295.
101	14 (§ 167)	—	<i>add</i> (as additional example) — lahát na táwo 'all men.'
109	§ 181 end	—	<i>add</i> (as additional example) — ang áking mangá kamáy 'my hands': (with following note) — <i>Manǵá</i> may also sometimes precede a prepositive possessive, e.g., <i>ang sa manǵá áking pinsán</i> (p. 160).
121	11 (§ 205)	—	<i>add</i> (after <i>din</i>) — <i>man</i> .
121	9 (from bot.)	—	<i>add</i> (before <i>din</i>) — <i>man</i> precedes <i>din</i> .
143	8 (§ 247)	—	<i>add</i> (after oblique) — They may, however, also take their logical object in the nominative, just like passive verbs, e. g., <i>pagkarinǵig ko siyá, umupó akó</i> 'when I heard him I sat down' (cf. § 308).
163	§ 284 end	—	<i>add</i> — Cf. also § 377 <i>mahanǵa</i> ; § 421, 2.
166	14 (from bot.)	magasáwa . . .	
		magáway mag ^{as} áwa . . . mag ^{as} áway.	
204	§ 342 end	—	<i>add</i> — The juxtaposition of active and passive of the same root is a form of repetition (cf. §§ 383, k; 88 end).
233	§ 369 end	—	<i>add</i> — For the expression of abundance, plurality by <i>mag</i> , <i>pag</i> cf. §§ 148, 385, 386.
239	2	—	<i>add</i> — This particle is apparently sometimes used as a suffix bearing the accent (e. g., <i>sinomán, isamán</i>), sometimes as an enclitic, without changing the accent of the modified word (e. g., <i>sadn man, isá man</i>).
255	bot.	—	<i>add</i> (as note to § 389) — The imperatives of involuntary verbs of this class are said by TOTANES to be "de <i>ingal</i> " or "de <i>recelo</i> ", which apparently means that they have a negative force.

<i>Page</i>	<i>Line</i>	<i>Present text</i>	<i>Correction</i>
283	§ 410 end	—	add — 23) Verbs of destruction: active, <i>um</i> , <i>maka</i> causal classes (cf. § 383, a); intransitive, <i>ma</i> class (cf. §§ 396, b; 403, g). 24) Verbs of pretending; <i>mag</i> class (cf. §§ 386; 403, d); cf. also No. 19.

N.B. As a result of the difference between the English and the German practice in dividing words at the end of a line, a number of word divisions different from those customary in English have gotten into the text, and some of these have eluded the vigilance of those who read the proof until too late for correction. Note the following corrections in cases of this kind, viz.: Bibliog-raphy (p. 1, l. 6 fr. bot.), syl-lable (10, 12), distrib-utive (26, 9 fr. bot.; 93, 11), redupli-cating (47, 7 fr. bot.), gener-ally (75, 10), auxil-iary (84, 1), meas-ures (93, 10), prep-ositional (108, 3 fr. bot.; 197, 10 fr. bot.), pred-icate (120, 10; 136, 11 fr. bot.; 137, 14 fr. bot.; 166, 1; 179, 1), nomi-native (128, 2 of § 217; 294, 10 fr. bot.), ordi-narily (136, 6 fr. bot.), appos-itive (179, 8), accord-ing (187, 4 fr. bot.), equiv-alent (198, 5 fr. bot.), signif-icant (201, 4 fr. bot.; 203, 2 fr. bot.), individ-uality (202, last), phenom-enon (204, 3).

Note also the German form of the italic capital *j*, viz. *ſ*, which occurs in a few cases (viz., pp. 4, 35, 77, 80, 116, 125, 194; also Title Page and VIII, note), and which could not be replaced by the common English form because of the lack of that form in some of the fonts of italic type.

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